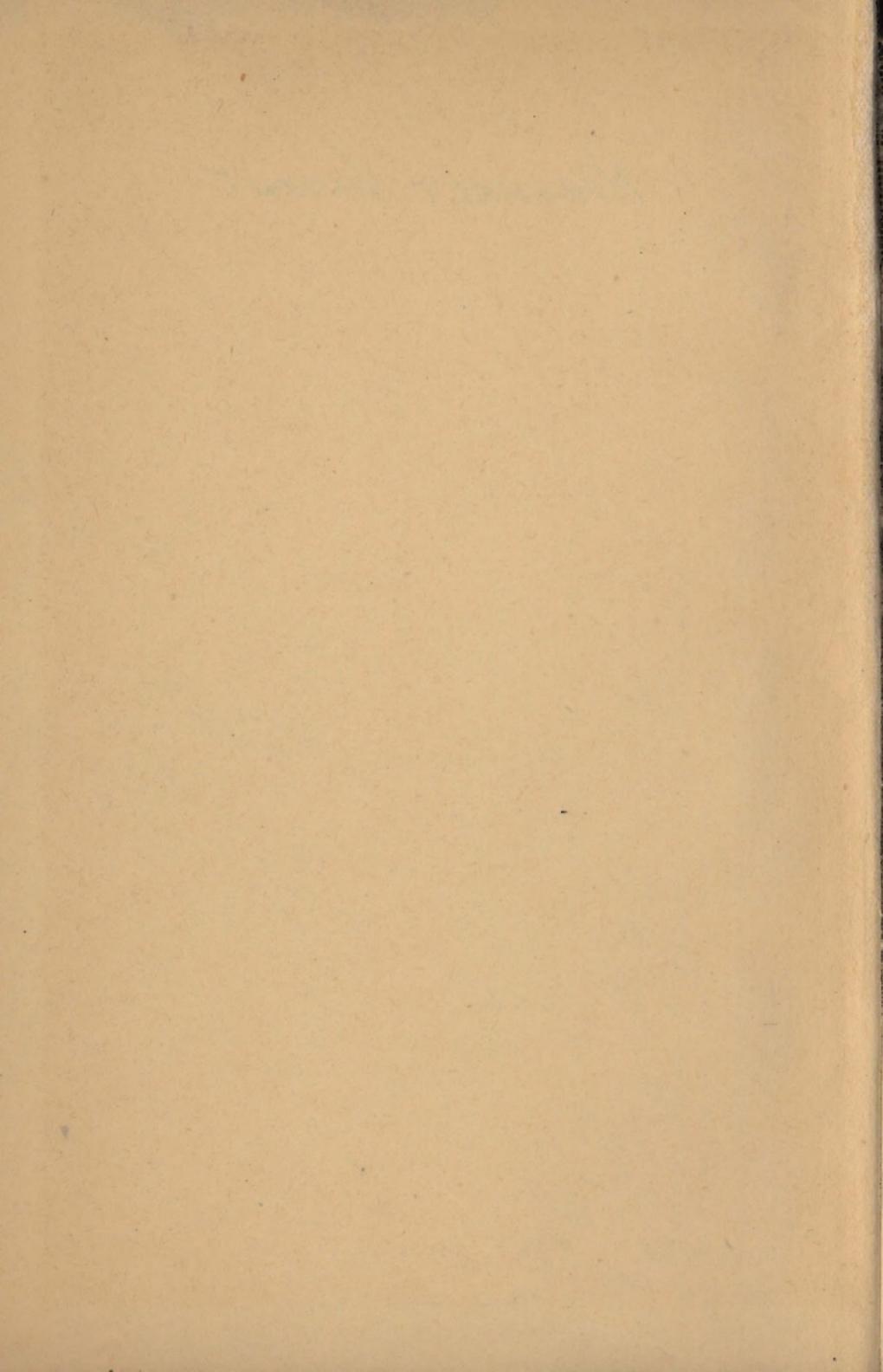


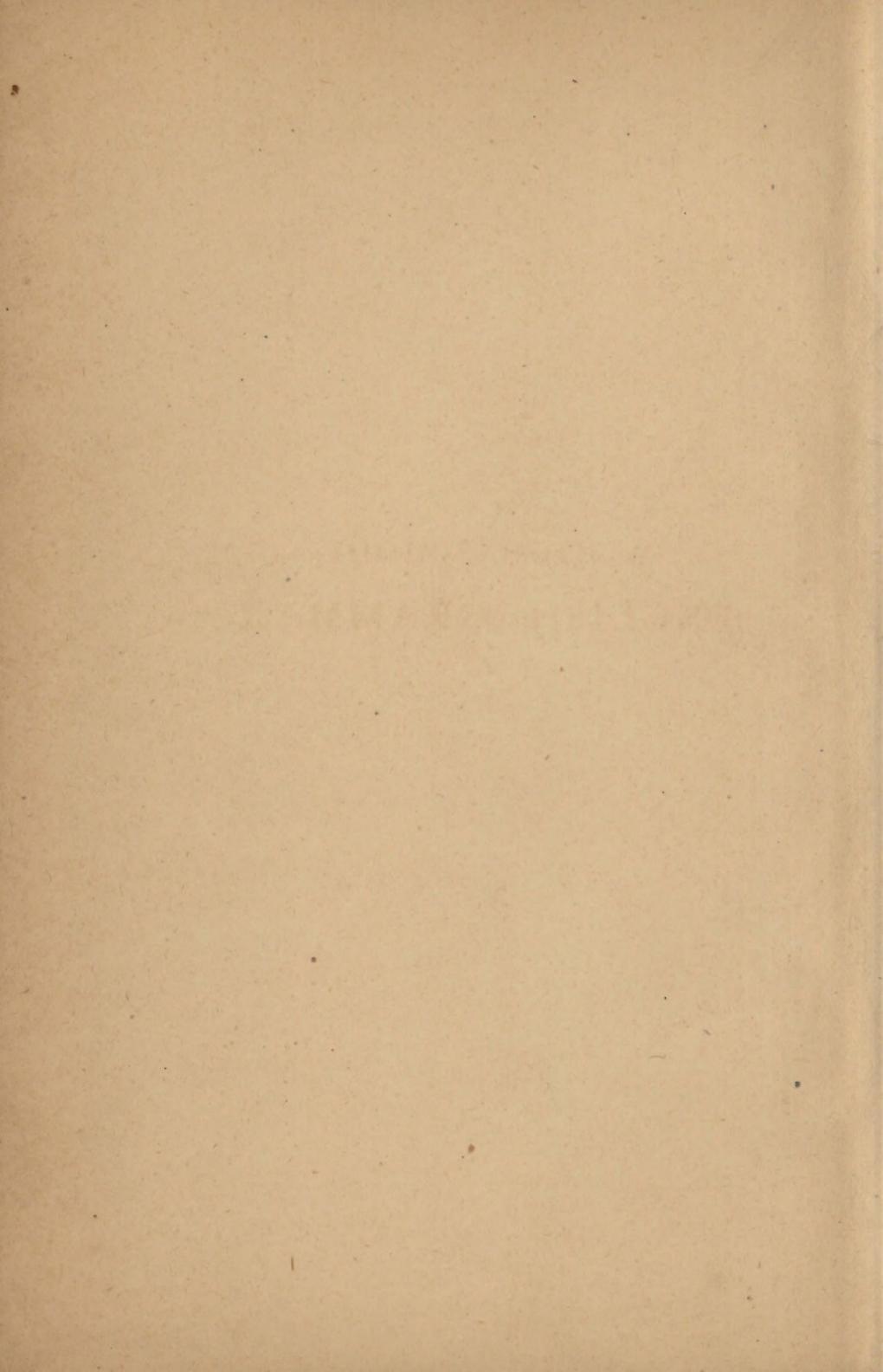


MADE IN
GREAT BRITAIN.

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A HIGH SCHOOL
ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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P R E F A C E

THE position of English Grammar in the High School course of study has been so vigorously assailed in recent years, that the time seems opportune to consider carefully how much of the material usually presented in text-books should be retained, and how much may be safely discarded. The aim of the authors of this book has been to treat concisely all the grammar that they think should be studied in the High School. While nothing important has been omitted, many distinctions and names that have had a time-honoured place in High School Grammars, have been omitted as unnecessary, or useless.

The terminology recommended by the (American) National Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature has been used throughout with two or three exceptions. The term *complement* has been retained with a very definite meaning, because the Committee did not suggest a substitute. The classification of the uses of the subjunctive mood given by the Committee has been much simplified, because that subject is always a very difficult one for High School classes.

Chapter I. is a review of Public School work, which will be found useful even for well prepared pupils. As this chapter and the next seven are, to a considerable extent, a review and amplification of the grammar studied in the Public School, the inductive treatment characteristic of the *Public School English Grammar* has been abandoned; but the teacher will, of course, use the so-called inductive method of presenting any portions of the subject which are new to his class.

In the chapter devoted to the history of the English language, the emphasis has been laid on the growth and evolution of our mother tongue as a *living organism*.

Section 1 tells of the relationship of English to the other Teutonic languages, and to the Indo-European family in general. Section 2 deals with the growth of the vocabulary, making reference constantly to the historical background. Section 3 shows inductively, by means of parallel passages, the general development of English grammar. Section 4 is an attempt to show how English spelling has come to be the curious thing it is, and, in this connection, the help to be derived from the use of a phonetic alphabet is illustrated. The great influence of stress is shown in section 5.

In the appendices more formal aid in the historical study of English Grammar is given. Appendix A shows how English declensions and conjugations have developed. In Appendix B, the verb has been fully dealt with from the point of view of modern conditions. Appendix C treats of composition and derivation, in regard to the Teutonic, as well as the Romance or Latin elements of our language. All through this portion of the work, the practical as well as the historical has been kept strictly in view.

While this book is the joint work of the three authors named on the title page, Prof. Jones is specially responsible for the text of Chapters I.—VIII., Prof. Horning for the historical outline of the language (Chapter IX. and appendices), and Mr. Morrow for the exercises.

In the preparation of this grammar, the best modern authorities have been consulted. For the benefit of teachers a practical bibliography is given (see pp. ix.—xi.), from which books may be chosen for the private or the school library.

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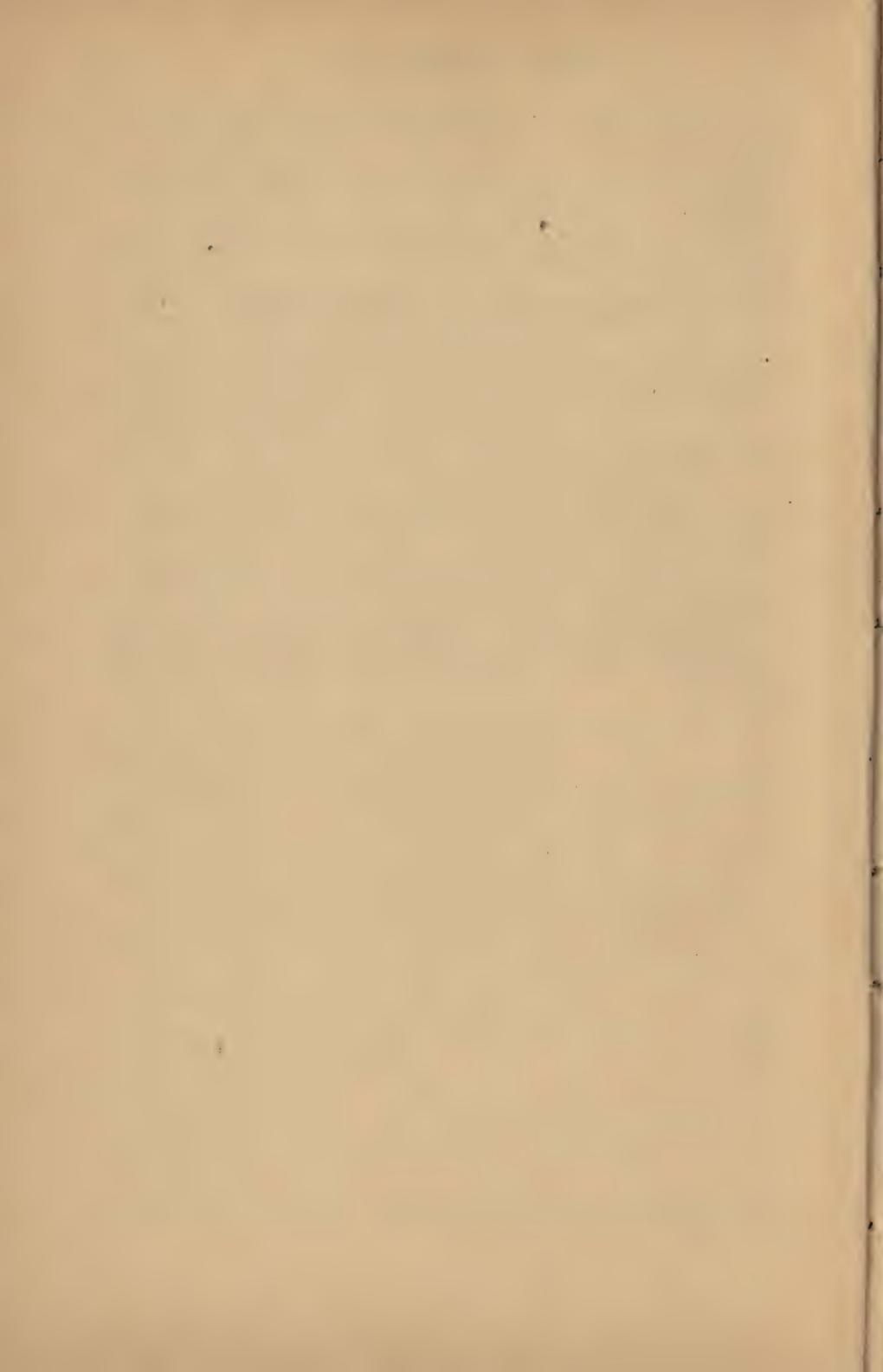
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A HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH GRAMMAR

CHAPTER I THE SENTENCE AND ITS PARTS

1. A SENTENCE is a word or a group of words expressing a complete thought.

John is running. Have they succeeded ? Go away.
The value of sport. Did the boys ?

The groups of words in the first line are sentences because each expresses a *complete* thought. Each group in line 2 is incomplete in thought, and neither, therefore, is a sentence.

2. Every sentence either tells something, or asks a question.

1. A DECLARATIVE SENTENCE is one that tells something.

Our soldiers have returned.
Give all honour to the brave men.

The first of these sentences *tells something* about the soldiers.

The second sentence *tells something* about the wish of the speaker.

2. An INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE is one that asks a question.

Have you eaten your dinner ? Did you skate to-day ?

3. When a sentence expresses an outburst of emotion it is EXCLAMATORY.

Beware ! The enemy are already here !
Have they really failed !

As these examples show, both declarative and interrogative sentences *may* be exclamatory.

4. Each sentence is composed of a SUBJECT and a PREDICATE.

The subject of a sentence designates the thing¹ spoken of; the predicate is what is said of the subject. In written work, subject and predicate may be conveniently separated by a slanting stroke as follows:

The great war / has ended.

When the sentence is interrogative you may have to rearrange the words.

Have they hurt you ?
they / Have hurt you ?

Sentences expressing command or exhortation usually omit the subject.

/ Pay close attention in class.

EXERCISE I

Classify each of the following sentences as declarative or interrogative, and exclamatory or non-exclamatory; and divide each into subject and predicate.

1. There is a beauty at the goal of life.
A. LAMPMAN, *The Goal of Life*.
2. O daughter ! thy God thus speaketh within thee!
Talk not of wasted affection ; affection never was wasted.
LONGFELLOW, *Evangeline*.
3. O, what a noble mind is here o'erthrown !
SHAKESPEARE, *Hamlet*.
4. But not the less do thou aspire
Light's earlier messages to preach.
J. R. LOWELL, *Above and Below*.
5. Old friends are the great blessings of one's later years.—
HORACE WALPOLE.
6. When will you watch with me again ?—C. BRONTË, *Jane Eyre*.
7. Thus Nature spake—The work was done—
How soon my Lucy's race was run !
WORDSWORTH, *Three Years She Grew*.
8. Is it ever hot in the square ? There's a fountain to sport
and splash !
BROWNING, *Up at a Villa, Down in the City*.

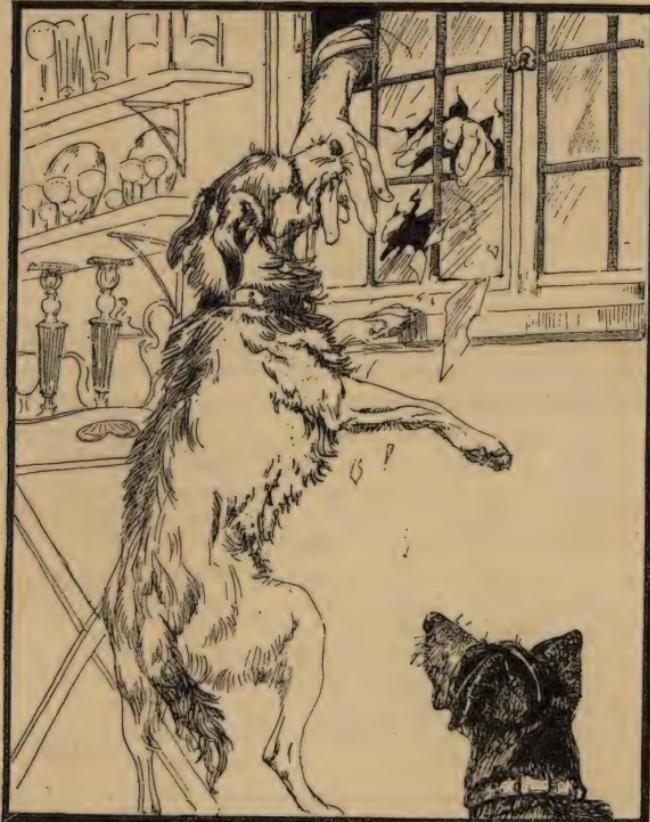
¹ The word *thing* is used here to denote whatever we can think of.

9. Him shall no sunshine from the fields of azure,
 No drum-beat from the wall,
 No morning gun from the black forts' embrasure,
 Awaken with its call !

LONGFELLOW, *The Warden of the Cinque Ports.*

EXERCISE 2

Write a paragraph containing declarative, interrogative, and exclamatory sentences about the following picture.



5. The essential part of the subject of a sentence, the part which names or represents the thing spoken of, is called the **SUBJECT SUBSTANTIVE**.

The War / came to an end in 1919.

Many representatives / of the nations / met at Paris.

6. The essential part of the predicate, the part which enables one to speak of the subject, is called the **PREDICATE VERB**.

The Peace Conference / *discussed* many important questions.

The Conference / *created* a League of Nations.

7. Both the subject substantive and the predicate verb *may* usually be modified by other words, or groups of words, which are called **MODIFIERS OF THE SUBJECT** and **MODIFIERS OF THE PREDICATE**.

In the following sentences these modifiers are put within brackets.

(Much) (bloody) *fighting* / *occurred* (after the armistice) (in Berlin).

(Many) (German) *people* / *were killed* (in this fighting).

EXERCISE 3

Divide each of the following sentences into subject and predicate, underline the subject substantive and the predicate verb, and enclose within brackets modifiers of the subject and modifiers of the predicate. This is an exercise in *analysis*.

1. The King with his escort was now seen in the distance.
2. The south-east wind frequently blows before rain.
3. There is another life, hard, rough, and thorny, trodden with bleeding feet and aching brow.—J. A. FROUDE, *England's Forgotten Worthies*.
4. In honour of Cæsar's achievements, a thanksgiving of twenty days' duration was decreed by the Roman Senate.—CÆSAR, *The Gallic War*.

5. Truth and Justice then
Will down return to men,
Orb'd in a rainbow.

MILTON, *The Hymn on the Morning of Christ's Nativity*.

6. In this narrow passage stands a man, looking through the palisades into the burying-place.—DEFOE, *A Journal of the Plague Year*.
7. Next to Sir Andrew in the club-room sits Captain Sentry, a gentleman of great courage, good understanding, but invincible modesty.—R. STEELE, *The Spectator*.
8. There were also in the same place two other ways besides the one coming from the gate.—BUNYAN, *The Pilgrim's Progress*.

9. In your lord's scale is nothing but himself,
And some few vanities.

SHAKESPEARE, *King Richard II.*

10. Cold the haughty Spartan smiled.

ISABELLA CRAWFORD, *The Helot.*

EXERCISE 4

Write a paragraph of ten sentences about your school, and then analyse each sentence as you did the sentences in the last exercise.

8. All predicate verbs are either TRANSITIVE or INTRANSITIVE.

1. A TRANSITIVE¹ VERB expresses an action which requires an object.

The boy struck the ball. The man built the house.
Study your lessons. Have you helped him?

A word like ball, house, lessons, or him, which names or represents the thing affected by the action expressed by the verb, is called an OBJECT.

2. All other verbs are INTRANSITIVE.

9. Intransitive verbs are of two kinds, COMPLETE, and LINKING.

1. A COMPLETE VERB expresses an action which does not require an object.

Men work. Boys play. The sun shines.

2. A LINKING VERB is used to join the subject and another word which describes the subject.

He is industrious. The gun seems useless. They are friends.

Each of the words, *industrious*, *useless*, and *friends*, not only describes the subject (really the thing denoted by the subject), but helps the predicate verb to express a thought. A word used in this way to complete the verb and modify the subject is called a COMPLEMENT.

¹ Latin *transeo*, go over. The action of the verb is represented as passing over to the object.

EXERCISE 5

Classify the italicised verbs in the following sentences as transitive, complete, or linking, and pick out the objects and complements of those verbs.

1. Bishop Grantly *died* as he *had lived*, peaceably, slowly, without pain and without excitement.—A. TROLLOPE, *Barchester Towers*.

2. And then at last our bliss
Full and perfect *is*.

MILTON, *Nativity Hymn*.

3. Two causes, the abbreviation of time, and the failure of hope, *will* always *tinge* with a browner shade the evening of life.—GIBBON, *Autobiography*.

4. The fire, with well-dried logs supplied,
Went roaring up the chimney wide;
The huge hall-table's oaken face,
Scrubbed till it *shone* the day to grace,
Bore then upon its massive board
No mark to part the squire and lord.

SCOTT, *Marmion*.

5. Russia *became* a republic a short time ago.

6. A.D. 678. This year *appeared* the comet-star in August, and *shone* every morning, during three months, like a sun-beam.—*Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*.

7. I, writing thus, *am* still what men call young.—E. B. BROWNING, *Aurora Leigh*.

8. If they *came* not with the Spring,
 Stamped as from its treasure,
 Giving dull eyes light again,
 Grief *were* without measure,
 Glow upon the shining meads
 All the bright May day.
Ah, the little golden heads,
 Soon they *will be* grey!

R. S. JENKINS, *The Dandelions*.

EXERCISE 6

Write a paragraph of ten sentences about your favourite pastime, and then classify the verbs, and select the objects and complements in your sentences.

10. Nearly every sentence you have had so far in this chapter has consisted of one statement, or one question, containing a subject and a predicate. Frequently, however, a sentence consists of two or more related statements or

questions, each containing a subject and a predicate, and each called a clause.

A CLAUSE, therefore, is a group of words consisting of a subject and a predicate.

1. Cæsar went to Gaul, and (he) conquered the country.
2. Cæsar went to Britain, but he did not remain long.
3. *After Cæsar had conquered Gaul*, he went to Britain.
4. Cæsar went to Britain, because the Britons had helped the Gauls.

In each of the first two sentences the clauses are of equal importance, and each clause might stand alone as an independent sentence, thus :

Cæsar went to Gaul. He conquered the country.

In each of the other sentences (3 and 4) the italicised clause is not only less important than the other, but serves like a single word to modify, or change the meaning of, the predicate of the other clause, and could not stand alone as a sentence. Such a clause is called SUBORDINATE. Each of the unitalicised clauses in 3 and 4, and each of the clauses in 1 and 2, could stand alone, and is called PRINCIPAL.

Clauses are of two kinds, principal and subordinate.

II. CLAUSES AND PHRASES.

A clause is a group of words consisting of a subject and a predicate.

A PHRASE is a group of words in a sentence having the function of a single word, and not consisting of a subject and predicate.

1. *When I returned*, I heard the news. (Clause.)
2. *On my return*, I heard the news. (Phrase.)
3. I heard *that he had returned home*. (Clause.)
4. *His return home* has delighted me. (Phrase.)
5. *What he did* interested me much. (Clause.)
6. This is *what he did*. (Clause.)
7. He is a *ne'er do well*. (Phrase.)

Notice that a clause may be used as a modifier (No. 1), as subject substantive (No. 5), as object of a verb (No. 3), or as complement (No. 6). Likewise a phrase may be used as a modifier, a subject substantive, an object, or a complement.

EXERCISE 7

1. Classify the clauses of the following sentences as principal or subordinate.
2. Define the use of each italicised phrase.
 1. Mr. Johnston, who lives *on Evelyn Avenue*, has a summer home *near the lake*.
 2. When March comes, we expect blustery weather.
 3. The boys often tell me that *after seven o'clock* is a splendid time for sleeping.
 4. When the train was ready to start, the conductor shouted "*All aboard!*"
 5. How many pupils *in this class* know what a *Sabbath-day's journey* is?
 6. That the Northern Spy is the best apple on the market is the opinion of many good judges.
 7. The late Mr. Roosevelt, who was an enthusiastic sportsman, hunted big game *in Africa*.
 8. When I went to school *in the country*, through the fields was the shortest way home.
 9. The reeve speaks *with confidence*, as he knows all the *ins and outs* of this business.
 10. These *good-for-nothings* will bring disgrace on us, if they are not checked.
 11. Some of the girls knew *at once* that over the fence was out.
 12. Any Canadian child can tell you that *no man's land* is the area between our trenches and the enemy's.
 13. You had better be what you seem.
 14. Though the old man has had many *ups and downs*, he has never lost faith in humanity.

15. We were the first that ever burst
Into that silent sea.

COLERIDGE, *The Ancient Mariner.*

16. As I spoke, I tore
The paper *up and down*, and down and up.

E. B. BROWNING, *Aurora Leigh.*

17. He could neither step nor stand, till he had his staff.
LANGLAND, *Piers Plowman.*

18. If I can rid your town of rats,
Will you give me a thousand guilders?

BROWNING, *The Pied Piper of Hamelin.*

EXERCISE 8

1. Write a paragraph of ten lines about the town or district in which you live, taking care that most of your sentences shall contain more than one clause each.
2. Classify the clauses in your paragraph.

12. Sentences are classified as simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex.

1. A **SIMPLE SENTENCE** consists of a single principal clause.

The boys and girls played ball together.

2. A **COMPOUND SENTENCE** consists of two or more principal clauses.

The boys played ball, and the girls played house.

The boys played, the girls danced, and the older folks talked.

3. A **COMPLEX SENTENCE** consists of a principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

The boys are returning, because it is getting dark.

If they come, I shall learn what they have done.

4. A **COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCE** is a combination of two or more sentences, at least one of which is complex.

If he comes, I shall help him ; but, if he fails to come, I shall abandon him.

You are my friend ; and for that reason, I know that you will help me.

EXERCISE 9

Classify the sentences in the following extract :

This great King (Alfred), in the first year of his reign, fought nine battles with the Danes. He made some treaties with them, too, by which the false Danes swore they would quit the country. They pretended to consider that they had taken a very solemn oath, but they cared little for it. Indeed, they thought nothing of breaking oaths, and treaties too, as soon as it suited their purpose. One fatal winter, in the fourth year of King Alfred's reign, they spread themselves in great numbers over the whole of England ; and so dispersed and routed the King's soldiers, that the King was left alone. He was obliged to disguise himself as a common peasant, and to take refuge in the cottage of one of his cowherds, who did not know his face.—DICKENS, *A Child's History of England* (adapted).

13. The Subject Substantive of a sentence may be a word, a phrase, or a clause.

This boy has fished all day.

The Duke of Connaught was Governor-General.

What they wanted was very surprising.

When a subject contains only one subject substantive it is called **simple**; when it contains more than one subject substantive it is called **compound**. The following sentences have compound subjects:

These boys and girls are tired.

What he wants and what he gets are different things.

14. The predicate verb of a sentence may be a word or a phrase.

You worked hard. You have worked hard.

You have been working hard.

When a predicate contains only one verb, it is **simple**; when it contains more than one verb, it is **compound**.

15. The following is an easy method of showing the analysis of a sentence:

1. (All) (the) boys (of the class) / helped (willingly).

(the). leader

2. I/asked (repeatedly)

what he wanted and what he had done.

(our) (best) friend.

3. (This) (industrious) man / is

4. What he did / interested (very much).

(his) friends

5. (The) boy (who did it) / will receive (when he returns).

(a) reward

6. Cæsar / went (to Britain) || but he / did (not) conquer

(the) island.

Subject and predicate are separated by a short slanting line. Subject substantive and predicate verb are underlined. Modifiers are enclosed in brackets. An object is put on the line below, and is connected with the verb by a diagonal line. A complement is put on the line above, and is connected with the verb by a diagonal line. Principal clauses are separated by double vertical lines.

EXERCISE IO

1. Analyse the sentences in each of the following extracts, using the graphic method explained above.

2. Classify the sentences in the following extracts :

1. Shortly Tom came upon the juvenile pariah of the village, Huckleberry Finn. Huckleberry was cordially dreaded by all the mothers of the town, because he was idle, lawless, vulgar, and bad. Besides, all their children admired him so, and delighted in his forbidden society, and wished they dared to be like him. Tom was like the rest of the respectable boys, because he envied Huckleberry his gaudy outcast condition, and was under strict orders not to play with him. So he played with him every time he got a chance. Huckleberry was always dressed in the cast-off clothes of full-grown men, and they were in perennial bloom and fluttering with rags. His hat was a vast ruin with a wide crescent lopped out of its brim. His coat, when he wore one, hung nearly to his heels, and had the rearward buttons far down the back. But one suspender supported his trousers. The fringed legs of his trousers dragged in the dirt when not rolled up. Huckleberry came and went at his own sweet will. He slept on door-steps in fine weather, and in empty hogsheads in wet. He did not have to go to school or to church, or call any being master, or obey anybody. He could go fishing or swimming when he chose, and could stay as long as he liked. Nobody forbade him to fight. He could sit up late, if he pleased. He was always the first boy that went barefoot in the spring. He was also the last to resume leather in the fall. He never had to wash or put on clean clothes. Everything that goes to make life precious that boy had. So thought every harassed, hampered, respectable boy in St. Petersburg.—MARK TWAIN, *Tom Sawyer* (adapted).

2. Arthur Wesley¹ entered the army in 1787, as he received a commission in the 41st regiment of foot. He held the rank of ensign for some months, and then became a lieutenant. The following anecdote proves that he was still a shy and awkward lad, and that the fair sex saw nothing to admire in him. He was at a ball one night, and could not find a partner. As he inherited his father's taste for music, he consoled himself by sitting down near the band. When the party broke up, the other officers took home their lady friends, but young Wesley was, by common consent, left to travel with the fiddlers. Old Lady Aldborough once reminded the Duke of the circumstance, after he had become a great man. He laughed heartily, and she added, "We should not leave you to go home with the fiddlers now."—GLEIG, *Life of Wellington* (adapted).

3. " When Michael lay on his dying bed,
 His conscience was awak'ned ;
 He bethought him of his sinful deed,
 And he gave me a sign to come with speed :

¹ This was the early form of the Duke of Wellington's family name.

I was in Spain when the morning rose,
 But I stood at his bed ere evening close.
 The words may not again be said,
 That he spoke to me, on death-bed laid ;
 They would rend this Abbaye's massy nave,
 And pile it in heaps above his grave.

SCOTT, *Lay of the Last Minstrel*.

16. There are eight so-called parts of speech. This means simply that words, phrases, and clauses are grouped in eight classes according to their functions in the sentence. The parts of speech are :

Nouns	Adjectives	Conjunctions
Pronouns	Adverbs	Interjections
Verbs	Prepositions	

17. A NOUN is the name of something. Nouns are divided into two classes.

(a) **A PROPER NOUN** is the name of an individual thing.

(b) **A COMMON NOUN** is a name applied to each one of a class of things.

Paris, Montreal, France, Great Britain, Gladstone. (Proper.) boy, girl, cat, dog, army, country. (Common.)

Note that each proper noun begins with a capital letter.

18. A PRONOUN is a substitute for a noun. It represents something without naming it.

Who (what man) is your friend ? *He* (my friend) is General Byng.

That (that book) is your book. *This* (this boy) is my brother.

The pronouns of one class are called **PERSONAL**, because they distinguish between the person speaking (first person), the person spoken to (second person), and the person or thing spoken about (third person). The personal pronouns are :

First person : I, we. Second person : (thou), you, (ye).

Third person : he, she, it, they.

19. Nouns and pronouns are very much alike in use. Both designate things, nouns by naming them, pronouns by representing them without naming them. **For this reason the general name SUBSTANTIVE is given to both nouns**

and pronouns. The word *substantive* denotes "existence," and is appropriately used, therefore, to designate words that name or represent things.

20. It should be remembered that **the classification of a word depends largely on its use in the sentence.** The same word may, for instance, be used as a noun in one sentence and an adjective in another.

The Klondyke produces much *gold*. (Noun.)

We gave him a *gold* watch. (Adjective.)

Love is a great force in the world. (Noun.)

They *love* their mother. (Verb.)

EXERCISE II

Select the nouns and pronouns in the following passages, and name all subject substantives, objects of verbs, and complements.

1. Then I saw in my dream that these good companions gave to Christian a loaf of bread, a bottle of wine, and a cluster of raisins.—BUNYAN, *Pilgrim's Progress*.

2. The sun, right up above the mast,
Had fixed her to the ocean;
But in a minute she 'gan stir;
With a short uneasy motion—
Backwards and forwards half her length,
With a short uneasy motion.

COLERIDGE, *The Ancient Mariner*.

3. Three years she grew in sun and shower,
Then Nature said, "A lovelier flower
On earth was never sown;
This child I to myself will take;
She shall be mine, and I will make
A lady of my own."

WORDSWORTH.

4. Light thickens, and the crow
Makes wing to the rooky wood:
Good things of day begin to droop and drowse,
Whiles night's black agents to their preys do rouse.
Thou marvell'st at my words; but hold thee still:
Things bad begun make strong themselves by ill.
So, prithee, go with me. SHAKESPEARE, *Macbeth*.

EXERCISE 12

Write a paragraph of ten lines about what you did yesterday, and then select the nouns and pronouns in your paragraph.

21. Nouns and pronouns have two numbers, singular and plural. Most nouns, and a number of pronouns, are changed in form, or *inflected*, to show number. The details of their inflection will be given in the next two chapters.

22. Nouns and pronouns have four principal functions (uses) in the sentence. These functions are called CASES, and are given four names, as follows :

NAME	FUNCTION
Nominative case.	Subject of verb.
Accusative case.	Direct object of a verb or a preposition.
Dative case.	Indirect object of a verb.
Genitive case.	Denoting possession, and modifying another substantive.

EXAMPLES

1. *John gave the woman his father's book.*
2. *Who had told his friend the story?*
3. *Roy's dog has bitten both me and him.*

In the first sentence, *John* is in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the verb *gave*; the word *woman* is in the dative case, because the woman is the indirect object of the giving (the person to whom the book was given); *father's* is in the genitive case, because it denotes possession, and modifies the word *book*; *book* is in the accusative case, because the book is the direct object of the giving (the thing given). Explain the case of each of the italicised words in sentences 2 and 3.

In the next chapter, you will learn that the names *nominative case*, *accusative case*, etc., are used to designate other functions of the noun, similar to those just explained.

23. While nouns have four cases, they have only two case-forms, a common case-form for the nominative, accusative, and dative cases, and a genitive case-form. The word *boy* is inflected as follows :

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Common	boy	boys
Genitive	boy's	boys'

One pronoun has three case-forms (nom., *who*; acc.-dat., *whom*; gen., *whose*).

All the personal pronouns except *you* and *it* have two case-forms.

	FIRST PERSON	SECOND PERSON	THIRD PERSON
	Sing. Pl.	Sing.	Pl. Sing. Pl.
Nom.	I	we you (thou)	you he, she, it they
Acc.-dat.	me us	you (thee)	you him, her, it them

Most of the other pronouns have only one case-form.

EXERCISE 13

Name the case of each italicised noun and pronoun in the following sentences :

1. *We* are *men* now—*we* possess *men's rights*.

Him who cares to give *me* the *lie*, *I* shall be prepared to meet in the woods.—ERCKMANN-CHATRIAN, *The Story of a Peasant*.

2. Come, tell *me* how *you* live !

3. But while this softer *art* their *bliss* supplies,
It gives their *follies* also *room* to rise.

GOLDSMITH, *The Traveller*.

4. Though the *mist* comes up from the marshes grey,
And covers the *earth* in its phantom fold,
Though it shrouds for a moment the golden *day*,
There must come a *time* when it back is rolled;
And then *thou* wilt see that the *day* so dull
Has the *glow* in its heart as it had of yore,
That the *world* as ever with bliss is full,
That *nought* is changed from the scene before.

R. S. JENKINS, *Mist*.

5. When *Ceres* heard *this*, *she* stood for a while like one stupefied.

6. But that *I* am forbid
To tell the *secrets* of my prison-house,
I could a *tale* unfold, whose lightest *word*
Would harrow up thy *soul*, freeze thy young *blood*.

SHAKESPEARE, *Hamlet*.

7. "Whose body is in that hearse?" said *I* to a dapper-looking individual, seemingly a shopkeeper, *who* stood beside me on the pavement, looking at the procession. "The mortal relics of Lord Byron, the illustrious poet, *which* have been just brought from Greece," said the dapper-looking individual.—BORROW, *Lavengro*.

EXERCISE 14

Write a paragraph of about ten lines about what you would like to do to-morrow, and then select from your paragraph all subject substantives, direct objects of verbs, indirect objects, and words in the genitive case.

24. A VERB is a word by means of which we make a declaration, or ask a question. You have already learned that verbs are classified according to their meaning, as follows :

- (a) Transitive
- (b) Intransitive { linking.
complete.

Transitive verbs require objects; linking verbs require complements; but a complete verb can make a declaration, or ask a question about something, without the assistance of either object or complement.

We reward our brave men. (Transitive.)

Our men are brave. (Linking.)

Our brave men fought well. (Complete.)

Verbs are inflected (changed in form) for tense, person, number and mood. Sometimes these distinctions are shown by means of verb phrases.

TENSE indicates time, present, past, and future. PERSON and NUMBER in the verb correspond with person and number in subject substantives. MOOD indicates the attitude of mind of the speaker. Declarations or questions which he treats as matters of fact are in the INDICATIVE MOOD. Commands or exhortations are in the IMPERATIVE MOOD. There is also a SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD which will be fully explained in Chapter V.

The present, past, and future tenses of the indicative mood of the verb *live* are as follows :

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT

	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1st person	I live	We live	I lived	We lived
2nd person	Thou livest	You live	Thou livedst	You lived
3rd person	He lives	They live	He lived	They lived

FUTURE

Singular

1st person	I shall live
2nd person	Thou wilt live
3rd person	He will live

Plural

We shall live
You will live
They will live

EXERCISE 15

Classify the verbs in the following sentences as transitive, complete, or linking. Name the tense of each italicised verb. Name the case of each italicised substantive.

1. Merrily the *feast* I'll make ;
 To-day I'll brew, to-morrow bake ;
 Merrily I'll dance and sing,
 For next day will a stranger bring.

GRIMM, *Household Tales*.

2. *Hobson Newcome* was a better *man* of business than his more solemn and stately brother, at whom he *laughed* in his jocular way ; and *he said* rightly, that a *gentleman* had to get up very early in the morning who *wanted* to take *him* in.—THACKERAY, *The Newcomes*.

3. The *Scots* are a bold hardy *race*, and *delight* much in war. When *they invaded England*, they were all usually on horseback ; they *brought* no *carriages* and *carried* no *provisions*. Under the flap of his saddle each *man* had a broad *plate* of metal ; and behind his saddle a little *bag* of oatmeal. So that when occasion *needed*, *he made cakes* of the oatmeal, and *baked them upon the plates*.—FROISSART, *Chronicles*.

4. *They do me wrong*, and *I will not endure it* ;
 Who are they that *complain* unto the King
 That I, forsooth, am stern and *love them not* ?
 By holy Paul, they *love* his *Grace* but lightly
 That *fill his ears* with such dissentious rumours.

SHAKESPEARE, *King Richard III.*

5. If *ye forgive* not *men* their *trespasses*, neither *will your Father forgive* your *trespasses*.—MATTHEW vi. 15.

6. "Courage!" he said, and *pointed* toward the land,
 "This mounting *wave* will *roll* us shoreward soon."
 In the afternoon *they came* unto a land
 In which it *seemed* always *afternoon*.

TENNYSON, *The Lotos-Eaters*.

EXERCISE 16

Write out the present, past, and future indicative tenses of the following verbs :

help, save, walk, talk, skate, step.

25. An ADJECTIVE is a word that modifies¹ a substantive.

¹ The word *modify* usually means "to change somewhat." In grammar it means "to change the meaning," or "to limit the application." For instance, in the sentence,

The *happy* boys are playing,

the adjective *happy* limits the application of the word *boys* in this sentence to a particular class of boys. Moreover, the addition of the adjective *happy* changes the meaning of the whole subject, and indeed of the whole sentence.

These *beautiful* pictures belong to the National Gallery.
These pictures, *beautiful* and *costly*, belong to the National Gallery.

Many pictures in the National Gallery are *beautiful* and *costly*.

Notice the positions of the adjectives in these sentences. The first adjective comes before the substantive it modifies ; the second and third ones follow the substantive closely ; the last two are in the predicate of the sentence, but modify the subject *pictures*.

26. An ADVERB is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

The man drove *furiously*.

The man drove *very* furiously.

The driving of the man was *very* furious.

Explain the function (use) of each italicised adverb.

EXERCISE 17

Select the adjectives and adverbs in the following sentences, and explain the grammatical function of each one:

1. I have observed that a reader seldom peruses a book with pleasure, till he knows whether the writer of it be a black or a fair man, of a mild or choleric disposition, married or a bachelor, with other particulars of like nature, that conduce very much to the right understanding of an author.—ADDISON,
The Spectator.

2. Imperious Cæsar, dead and turned to clay,
Might stop a hole to keep the wind away.

SHAKESPEARE, *Hamlet*.

3. "Allan," he said, as soon as the ranks had become somewhat firm again, "lead them down hill to support Lord Evandale, who is about to need it very much."—SCOTT, *Old Mortality*.

4. Soon the assembly, in a circle ranged,
Stood silent round the shrine ; each look was changed
To sudden veneration ; women meek
Beckon'd their sons to silence.

KEATS, *Endymion*.

5. Near yonder copse, where once the garden smiled,
And still where many a garden-flower grows wild,
There, where a few torn shrubs the place disclose,
The village preacher's modest mansion rose,
A man he was to all the country dear,
And passing rich with forty pounds a year.

GOLDSMITH, *The Deserted Village*.

6. In the Acadian land, on the shores of the Basin of Minas,
Distant, secluded, still, the little village of Grand-Pré
Lay in the fruitful valley.

LONGFELLOW, *Evangeline*.

7. Behold her, single in the field,
Yon solitary Highland lass !
Reaping and singing to herself ;
Stop here or gently pass !
Alone she cuts and binds the grain,
And sings a melancholy strain.

WORDSWORTH, *The Solitary Reaper*.

8. Canada, rich as she is in natural resources, has been found to be richer still in her heroic sons.

9. For three whole days across the sky,
In sullen packs that loomed and broke,
With flying fringes dim as smoke,
The columns of the rain went by.

ARCHIBALD LAMPMAN, *After Rain*.

10. The crow doth sing as sweetly as the lark,
When neither is attended.

SHAKESPEARE, *The Merchant of Venice*.

EXERCISE 18

Fill each blank with an adjective or an adverb, and then explain the grammatical function of the word you have supplied.

1. The road now became —— so that we had to drive ——.
2. The lilacs smell ——.
3. The flag came ——.
4. The moon does not shine —— —— as the sun.
5. Lloyd George is considered ——.
6. The doctor, —— and ——, was highly respected in the community.
7. This made my friend ——.
8. He did his work —— well, as I.
9. He lived in Mitchell —— ago.
10. The room has become ——, because the fire has gone ——.
11. —— kind they were to us !
12. We think the man ——.
13. —— faster he goes, —— sooner he will overtake them.
14. His visit —— was enjoyed by all.
15. He was up —— before daylight.

27. A PREPOSITION is a word used to form a phrase and to show the relation between a substantive and another word.

Foch led an army *into* Germany.

Wilson worked *with* zeal *for* a league of nations.

In the first sentence the preposition *into* helps to form an adverbial phrase, *into Germany*, and shows the relation between the substantive *Germany* and the verb *led*. Explain the function of each of the prepositions in the second sentence.

The substantive which immediately follows the preposition is called the object of the preposition, and is in the accusative case.

Have you received letters *from* your friends ?

The noun *friends* is the object of the preposition *from*, and is in the accusative case.

28. A CONJUNCTION is a word used to join together words, phrases, or clauses (but not to form phrases).

Cartier *and* Champlain were great explorers.

Love of right *and* hatred of wrong were his great virtues.

What he did *and* what he tried to do are known to all.

29. An INTERJECTION is a word thrown into the sentence to express feeling of some kind. An interjection is equivalent to a whole sentence, and has no grammatical connection with the other words in the sentence.

Oh ! they have failed in their attempt.

Faith ! you are a fine warrior.

When used in answering questions, the words *yes* and *no* are whole sentences, not parts of speech.

Have they come ? *Yes.*

Do you wish our assistance ? *No.*

EXERCISE 19

Select the prepositions, conjunctions and interjections in the following sentences. Explain the function of each preposition and conjunction.

1. Maitre Jean could not bear the man, but Catherine, his wife, would keep for him a choice morsel of bacon, and answer her husband, who seemed put out about it :

"I have my seat in church, and I wish to have my seat in Heaven ; and you, too, will be glad to sit by my side in the Kingdom of Heaven."

Upon that he would laugh, and say no more.—ERCKMANN-CHATRIAN, *The Story of a Peasant*.

2. Ah ! then and there was hurrying to and fro,
 And gathering tears, and tremblings of distress,
 And cheeks all pale, which but an hour ago,
 Blushed at the praise of their own loveliness ;
 And there were sudden partings, such as press
 The life from out young hearts, and choking sighs
 Which ne'er might be repeated.

BYRON, *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*.

3. Let us go over the hills and far away.
 4. The boy told his teacher what he had planned and what
 he had done.
 5. He had nothing to sell, except this farm.
 6. Spring is here, for the birds have returned.
 7. Our friend Bert had been away from home, but he hurried
 back to Fullarton for the wedding.
 8. Tut, tut,
 Thou troublest me ; I am not in the vein.

SHAKESPEARE, *King Richard III.*

EXERCISE 20

Fill each blank with a preposition or a conjunction, and then, in connection with the word you have supplied, tell what part of speech it is, and explain its function.

1. Joe ran —— the stairs, —— he never walked —— he could run.
 2. Many Russians have died —— hunger.
 3. —— I was a boy, I used to walk —— the wood.
 4. All roads lead —— Rome.
 5. He left his children nothing —— a good name.
 6. Five —— them were wise, —— five —— them were foolish.
 7. I cannot assent —— this proposal.
 8. His home is in —— Toronto —— Hamilton.
 9. Never trouble trouble —— trouble troubles you.
 10. The storm was so severe —— we were unable to set out.
 11. Let us dispense —— ceremony, —— proceed —— our work.
 12. —— snow still lay —— the valleys, the hills were bare.
 13. This house is different —— ours.
 14. The soil —— my garden is rich, —— the weeds are high.
 15. —— his troubles he keeps a cheerful countenance.
 16. It's easy enough to be pleasant,
 —— life flows along —— a song.
 17. It ceased; —— still the sails made on
 A pleasant noise —— noon.

COLERIDGE, *The Ancient Mariner*.

18. These cadets march —— soldiers.
 19. These cadets march —— they have been taught to do.
 20. Up ! up ! my friend, —— quit your book,
 —— surely you'll grow double.

WORDSWORTH, *The Tables Turned*.

30. PHRASES AS PARTS OF SPEECH. Phrases as well as words are classified as parts of speech.

Nouns: This *ne'er-do-well* is lazy. The *Duke of Richmond* has come.

Pronouns: We admire *each other*. They praise *one another*.

Verb: *We shall have done it*. He *would have come*, if he *had known* the hour.

Adjectives: The people *of this city* will help the men *of the army*.

Adverb: Our friends work *in the city*, but we work *on the farm*.

Preposition: Your friend came *by way of* London.

Conjunction: He did it *in order that* they might be free.

Interjection: *Upon my word!* what has the fellow done?

31. Subordinate Clauses are classified as substantives, adjectives, and adverbs.

(a) A **SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSE** is one used in the sentence as a noun or pronoun would be used. (Nouns and pronouns are substantives.)

What he did interests me very much. (Subject.)

I know *that our friends have come*. (Direct object of verb.)

I shall give *what he says* my closest attention. (Indirect object.)

What is your opinion of *what they propose*? (Direct object of preposition.)

(b) An **ADJECTIVAL CLAUSE** is one that modifies a substantive.

Have you seen Harry Lee, *who has just returned from France*?

The mouse *that always trusts to one poor hole*,
Can never be a mouse of any soul.

POPE.

They never taste *who always drink* ;
They always talk *who never think*.

MATTHEW PRIOR.

(c) An **ADVERBIAL CLAUSE** is one that modifies a verb, an adjective or an adverb. Like simple adverbs, the adverbial clauses express a variety of ideas. In examining the following sentences, determine what word or words are modified by each adverbial clause.

1. Place :

I shall go where he leads me.

Whither thou goest, I will go; and where thou lodgest I will lodge.—Ruth i. 16.

2. Time :

Our friends will come, *when their work is done.*
Since he left, I have been reading this book.

3. Manner :

They have acted, *as we did.*

Do as you wish (to do) about that matter.

4. Cause :

They came, *because we were friends.*

Since you have helped me, I shall help you.

5. Purpose :

They came, *in order that they might help us.*

Neither cast ye your pearls before swine, lest they trample them under their feet.—Matthew vii. 6.

6. Condition :

If you help me, I shall help you.

If our friends were here, we should rejoice.

7. Concession :

Even if help came now, we should fail.

Though He slay me, yet will I trust Him.—Job xiii. 15.

8. Result :

They were so exhausted *that they fell.*

I told such a story that they pitied me.

9. Degree :

He is as good *as his word (is good).*

This man's speech is better *than his brother's (is good).*

32. Notes on Adverbial Clauses.

1. Notice that in each of the first sixteen sentences quoted in section 31c, above, the adverbial clause modifies the verb in the principal clause. Adverbial clauses modify verbs more frequently than they modify adjectives or adverbs.

2. A clause of purpose always refers to a time subsequent to that of the principal clause. Moreover, a clause of purpose always implies a wish. These two characteristics

help one to distinguish the clause of purpose from the clause of cause.

3. A clause of concession is similar to one of condition, but implies a concession of some point by the speaker. The following sentences illustrate this point:

*I concede that Smith is rich, but he is not happy.
Even if Smith is rich, he is not happy.*

4. Clauses of degree might be called clauses of comparison, since each of them assists in expressing a comparison. Notice that the two clauses of degree given above do not modify verbs. The first one modifies the adjective *good*, and the second one modifies the adjective *better*.

5. Be careful not to confuse clauses of result with either clauses of degree or those of purpose. The clause of result explains the result or consequence of some action or state.

He was so tired that (as a result) he could not sleep.

Such a clause does not help to express a comparison (as does a clause of degree), nor does it express purpose.

EXERCISE 21

In connection with each adjectival and adverbial clause in section 31, tell what word or phrase is modified by the clause.

EXERCISE 22

Select and classify the subordinate clauses in the following sentences. Give the relation of each.

A

1. The Allies were victorious in the war because right was on their side.
2. When the battalion returned to the city, the bells rang and the whistles blew.
3. My friend, Mr. Gourlay, tells his pupils that children cry for algebra.
4. The zero hour was three o'clock in the morning when the enemy trenches were usually quiet.
5. Though many were invited to the banquet, few came.
6. Dr. Smith told the family that, if his directions were followed, the patient would recover.
7. The difficulties to be overcome by the first settlers of this province were greater than the little annoyances, which trouble us so much.

8. That you have wrong'd me doth appear in this.

SHAKESPEARE, *Julius Cæsar*.

9. He is as bold as a lion.

10. He saw that, though there was a glimmer of light in the east, the night was still so dark that nothing could be attempted.

11. The boys in Mr. McIntosh's charge were so anxious to learn, that he was compelled to prevent them from studying too much.

12. The scout hid in the dense forest, lest he should be seen by the enemy.

13. The book lay where it had fallen.

14. As the twig is bent, the tree inclines.

B

1. The notice which you have been pleased to take of my labours, had it been early, had been kind; but it has been delayed till I am indifferent and cannot enjoy it.—BOSWELL, *Life of Dr. Johnson*.

2. Don Quixote had always showed himself such a good-natured man, that he was beloved, not only by his family but by everyone that knew him.—CERVANTES, *Don Quixote*.

3. He told me that nothing would give him greater pleasure than to see me dance a minuet with his wife after the marriage dinner.—BORROW, *Romany Rye*.

4. I was bid go this way, by a man, who directed me also to yonder gate, that I might escape the wrath to come; and as I was going thither, I fell in here.—BUNYAN, *The Pilgrim's Progress*.

5. Grammar for boys I bade men write;

And, would they learn not, I beat them with a broom.

LANGLAND, *Piers Plowman*.

6. Yet now despair itself is mild,

Even as the winds and waters are.

SHELLEY, *Stanzas Written in Dejection*.

7. God, in cursing, gives us better gifts

Than men in benediction.

E. B. BROWNING, *Aurora Leigh*.

8. I have passed my later years in this city, where I am frequently seen in most public places, though there are not above half-a-dozen of my select friends that know me.—ADDISON, *The Spectator*.

9. Oft in the stilly night,

Ere slumber's chain has bound me,

Fond memory brings the light

Of other days around me.

T. MOORE, *The Light of Other Days*.

10. This neighbourhood is as quiet as any I know; and, though there are hundreds of pounds' worth of plate in the

plate-closet, the Hall has never been attempted by robbers since it was a house.—C. BRONTE, *Jane Eyre*.

11. Because she was extremely zealous for the education of my younger brother, her desire was that he might be sent with me to Lewes.—EVELYN, *Diary*.

12.

Get work, get work;

Know 'tis better than what you work to get.

E. B. BROWNING, *Aurora Leigh*.

33. **PARTICLES.** Certain words resemble parts of speech, but are not fully enough like any one of them to be classified as parts of speech. They are called particles, and are classed as adverbial, prepositional, or conjunctive according to the part of speech they resemble most.

There are many friends here.

Even my friends criticized me.

My friends *even* criticized me.

My friends criticized me, *even*.

} (Adverbial Particles.)

Here is a horse for me to ride *on*. (Prepositional particle.)

As chairman of the meeting he was successful. (Conjunctive particle.)

The word *there* in sentence 1 has lost its original adverbial force, and is here used simply as an introductory word by means of which we are enabled to put the subject after the verb. *Even* resembles an adverb more than any other part of speech, and yet it may be used to emphasise any part of speech. Justify the name *prepositional particle* for the word *on* in sentence 5. The word *as* in the last sentence does not join one clause to another, or even one word to another, yet it is conjunctive in origin. This is best shown by substituting *when*, and adding a verb, as follows :

When he was chairman of the meeting, he was successful.

34. **CLAUSAL ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.** You have already learned to analyse sentences into subject and predicate, objects, complements, and modifiers. There is another kind of analysis, called clausal, which simply divides the sentence into clauses, and defines their relations. In clausal analysis, the principal clause should be stated first, and then the subordinate clauses in turn. The following form is suggested for written work (see p. 267):

SENTENCES

1. Peace will be made, because the war is over.
2. The war has been fought, and peace is being made.
3. Our soldiers went to Europe, because there was a war there; and now they are coming home, because the war is over.
4. If the statesmen in Paris are wise, and if they arrange a just peace, shall we not be happy?

Sentence 1:

Peace will be made . . . over. Complex declarative.

1. Peace will be made, Principal.

(a) because the war is over.

Subord., adv. of cause, mod. *will be made*.

Sentence 2:

The war . . . made. Compound declarative.

1. The war has been fought, Principal.

2. (and) peace is being made.

Principal, co-ordinate¹ with No. 1.

Sentence 3:

Our soldiers . . . over. Compound-complex declarative.

1. Our soldiers went to Europe, Principal.

(a) because there was war there;

Subord., adv. of cause, mod. *went*,

2. (and) now they are coming home,

Principal, co-ordinate with No. 1,

(a) because the war is over.

Subord., adv. of cause, mod. *are coming*.

Sentence 4:

If the statesmen . . . happy? Complex interrogative.

1. shall we not be happy? Principal.

(a) If the statesmen in Paris are wise,

Subord., adv. of condition, mod. *shall be happy*,

(b) (and) if they arrange a just peace,

Subordinate adverbial of condition modifying

shall be happy, co-ordinate with (a).

The noun clause which is subject of a principal clause, should be stated both with the latter and separately, as in the following example :

What they have accomplished is very important.

Principal declarative.

(a) What they have accomplished.

Subord. subst. subj. of *is*.

Likewise, when a substantive clause is a complement, or the object of a verb or preposition, it should first

¹ *Co-ordinate* means "of the same rank."

be included in the principal clause, and then stated separately.

This book is *what we want*. (Complement.)

We know *that they are sincere*. (Obj. of verb.)

We are satisfied with *what he has done*. (Obj. of prep.)

EXTRACTS FOR ANALYSIS

Analyse each sentence in these passages, according to the plan just described.

1. But, sir, I wish to tell you that the noblest prospect which a Scotchman ever sees, is the high road that leads him to England.—*BOSWELL, Life of Dr. Johnson.*

2. Then he went on, till he came to the house of the interpreter, where he knocked over and over ; at last one came to the door and asked who was there.—*BUNYAN, The Pilgrim's Progress.*

3.
 Never love unless you can,
 Bear with all the faults of man !
 Men sometimes will jealous be
 Though but little cause they see,
 And hang the head in discontent,
 And speak what straight they will repent.

T. CAMPION, *Advice to a Girl.*

THE ROMAN MISSIONARIES COME TO BRITAIN

4. Augustine had, by order of Pope Gregory, taken interpreters of the nation of the Franks, and, sending to King Ethelbert of Kent, announced that he was come from Rome, and brought a joyful message, which most undoubtedly assured to all that took advantage of it, everlasting joys in Heaven, and a kingdom that would never end.—*BEDE, Ecclesiastical History.*

THE NIGHT IN THE INN

5. His antagonists, though inferior in strength, had both swiftness and daring, and above all they had settled how to attack him. When he reared his axe, they flew at him like cats, and both together. If he struck a full blow with his weapon, he would most likely kill one, but the other would certainly kill him ; he saw this, and understanding the danger, he thrust the handle fiercely in Denys's face, and, turning, jabbed with the steel at Gerard. Denys went staggering back, covered with blood. Gerard had rushed in like lightning, and, just as the axe turned to descend on him, drove his sword so fiercely through the giant's body that the very hilt sounded on his ribs like the blow of a pugilist, and Denys, staggering back to help his friend, saw a steel point come out of the Abbot's back.—*C. READE, The Cloister and the Hearth.*

THE RESCUE OF SOPHIA

6. My attention was so much taken up by Mr. Burchell's account that I scarce looked forward as he went along, till we were alarmed by the cries of my family ; then, turning, I perceived my youngest

daughter in the midst of a rapid stream, thrown from her horse, and struggling with the torrent. Although she had sunk twice, I was so overcome by my sensations that I was unable to attempt her rescue. She must have certainly perished, had not my companion, perceiving her danger, instantly plunged in to her relief, and with some difficulty brought her in safely to the opposite shore. By taking the current a little further up, the rest of the family got safely over, where we had an opportunity of joining our acknowledgments to hers. Her gratitude may be more readily imagined than described ; she thanked her deliverer more with looks than with words, and continued to lean upon his arm. My wife also expressed the hope that she might have the pleasure of returning his kindness at her own house.—O. GOLDSMITH, *The Vicar of Wakefield*.

MR. FAGIN'S HATRED OF LAZINESS

7. Oliver was rendered the more anxious to be actively employed by what he had seen of the stern morality of Mr. Fagin's character. Whenever the Dodger or Charley Bates came home at night, empty-handed, he would expatiate with great vehemence on the misery of idle and lazy habits ; and that he might enforce upon them the necessity of an active life, he would send them supperless to bed. On one occasion, indeed, when they had returned with nothing, he was so righteously indignant, that he even knocked them both down a flight of stairs ; but this was carrying out his virtuous precepts to an unusual extent.—DICKENS, *Oliver Twist*.

8. " If the enemy attacks the right wing," Andrew said to himself, " the Kiev grenadiers must defend their positions till they can be supported by the reserves in the centre, and then the dragoons can make a flank movement and cut them to pieces. If they attack the centre, which is covered by the principal battery, we can concentrate the left flank on this height and retire in good order to the reserve." As he made these reflections, he could still hear the voices in the officers' hut, though he did so without paying the slightest attention to what they were saying.—TOLSTOI, *War and Peace*.

9. O good old man ! how well in thee appears
The constant service of the antique world,
When service sweat for duty, not for meed !
Thou art not for the fashion of these times,
Where none will sweat but for promotion,
And having that, do choke their service up
Even with the having : it is not so with thee,
But, poor old man, thou prun'st a rotten tree,
That cannot so much as a blossom yield
In lieu of all thy pains and husbandry.
But come thy ways ; we'll go along together,
And ere we have thy youthful wages spent,
We'll light upon some settled low content.

SHAKESPEARE, *As You Like It*.

FRIEND WILLIAM AND THE BUCCANEERS

10. When we had taken this ship, our next difficulty was, what to do with the negroes. The Portuguese in the Brazils would have

bought them all of us, and been glad of the purchase, if we had not shown ourselves enemies there, and been known for pirates ; but, as this was the case, we durst not go ashore anywhere thereabouts, or treat with any of the planters, because we should raise the whole country upon us ; and, if there were any men-of-war in their ports, we should be sure of being attacked by them, and by all the force they had by land or sea.

At last, our never-failing friend, William the Quaker, helped us out again. His proposal was this, that he should go as master of the ship, taking a few men whom we could best trust, and attempt to trade privately, upon the coast of Brazil, with the planters, not at the principal ports, since that would not be admitted.—D. DEFOE, *The Adventures of Captain Singleton*.

THE VILLAGE SCHOOL-MASTER

11. Yet he was kind, or, if severe in aught,
 The love he bore to learning was in fault.
 The village all declared how much he knew.
 'Twas certain he could write and cipher too ;
 Lands he could measure, terms and tides presage ;
 And e'en the story ran—that he could gauge ;
 In arguing, too, the parson own'd his skill,
 For e'en though vanquished, he could argue still,
 While words of learned length, and thund'ring sound,
 Amazed the gazing rustics ranged around ;
 And still they gazed, and still the wonder grew
 That one small head could carry all he knew.
 But past is all his fame. The very spot,
 Where many a time he triumph'd, is forgot.

GOLDSMITH, *The Deserted Village*.

DISCIPLINE AT DOTHEBOYS HALL

12. "Mobbs' mother-in-law," said Squeers, "took to her bed on hearing that he wouldn't eat fat, and has been very ill ever since. She wishes to know, by an early post, where he expects to go if he quarrels with his victuals ; and with what feelings he could turn up his nose at the broth, after his good master had asked a blessing on it. This was not told to her by Mr. Squeers, since he is too kind and good to make trouble for anyone, and it has vexed her more than Mobbs can imagine. She is sorry to find he is discontented, and hopes Mr. Squeers will flog him into a happier state of mind."

"A sulky state of mind," said Squeers, after a terrible pause, during which he had moistened the palm of his right hand again, "won't do. Cheerfulness and contentment must be kept up. Mobbs, come to me ! "

Mobbs moved slowly towards the desk, rubbing his eyes in anticipation of good cause for doing so ; and he soon afterwards retired by the side door, with as good cause as a boy need have.—DICKENS, *Nicholas Nickleby*.

13. Alas, alas for Hamelin !
 There came into many a burgher's pate
 A text which says that Heaven's gate
 Opes to the rich at as easy a rate

As the needle's eye takes a camel in!
 The Mayor sent East, West, North, and South,
 To offer the Piper, by word of mouth,
 Wherever it was men's lot to find him,
 Silver and gold to his heart's content,
 If he'd only return the way he went,
 And bring the children behind him.
 But when they saw 'twas a lost endeavour,
 And Piper and dancers were gone forever,
 They made a decree that lawyers never
 Should think their records dated duly
 If, after the day of the month and year,
 These words did not as well appear,
 " And so long after what happened here,
 On the twenty-second of July,
 Thirteen hundred and seventy-six."

R. BROWNING, *The Pied Piper of Hamelin.*

THE BROTHERS OF BIRCHINGTON

14. Among them there was one whom if once I begun
 To describe as I ought, I should never have done,
 Father Richard of Birchington, so was the Friar
 Yclept [called] whom the rest had elected their Prior.

Now Nature, 'tis said, is a comical jade,
 And among the fantastical tricks she has play'd,
 Was the making our good Father Richard a brother,
 As like him in form as one pea's like another ;

He was tall and upright, about six feet in height,
 His complexion was what you'd denominate light,
 And, though he had not shorn his ringlets of brown,
 He'd a little bald patch on the top of his crown.

But here, it's pretended, the parallel ended !
 In fact, there's no doubt his life might have been mended,
 And people who spoke of the Prior with delight,
 Shook their heads if you mentioned his brother the Knight.

R. H. BARHAM, *The Ingoldsby Legends.*

DON QUIXOTE NAMES HIS CHARGER

15. Don Quixote was four days considering what name to give his horse ; for he argued with himself that there was no reason that a horse bestrid by so famous a knight, and withal so excellent in himself, should not be distinguished by a particular name ; and therefore he studied to give him such a one as should demonstrate not only what kind of a horse he had been before his master was a knight-errant, but also what he was now. And he thought it but just, since the owner had changed his profession, that the horse should also change his title and be dignified with another ; it must be a sonorous word ; such a one as should fill the mouth, and seem

consonant with the quality and profession of his master. And thus, after many names which he devised, rejected, changed, liked, disliked, and pitched upon again, he concluded to call him Rozinante, a word composed of two parts, *Rozin* meaning an *ordinary horse*, and *ante* meaning *formerly*; a name, lofty sounding, and significant of what he had been before, and also of what he was now; in a word, a horse before or above all the vulgar breed of horses in the world.
—CERVANTES, *Don Quixote*.

16. *Portia.* You, merchant, have you anything to say ?

Antonio. But little ; I am arm'd and well prepar'd.—

Give me your hand, Bassanio ; fare you well !

Grieve not that I am fallen to this for you ;

For herein Fortune shows herself more kind,

Than in her custom ; it is still her use [custom]

To let the wretched man outlive his wealth,

To view with hollow eye and wrinkled brow

An age of poverty ; from which lingering penance

Of such misery doth she cut me off.

Command me to your honourable wife ;

Tell her the process of Antonio's end ;

Say how I lov'd you, speak me fair in death ;

And when the tale is told, bid her be judge

Whether Bassanio had not once a love.

Repent not you that you shall lose your friend,

And he repents not that he pays your debt ;

For, if the Jew do cut but deep enough,

I'll pay it instantly with all my heart.

SHAKESPEARE, *The Merchant of Venice*.

HENRY ESMOND MEETS HIS FUTURE WIFE

17. Her heart melted, I suppose, at the notion that she should do anything unkind to any mortal, great or small ; for, when she returned, she had sent away the housekeeper upon an errand by the door at the farther end of the gallery ; and, coming back to the lad, with a look of infinite pity and tenderness in her eyes, she took his hand again, placing her other fair hand on his head, and saying some words to him, which were so kind, and said in a voice so sweet, that this boy, who had never looked upon such a beauty before, felt as if the touch of a superior being or angel smote him down to the ground, and kissed the fair protecting hand as he knelt on one knee.—THACKERAY, *The History of Henry Esmond*.

NOTE:—Other extracts for analysis will be found in Appendix E.

CHAPTER II

THE NOUN

I. CLASSIFICATION

35. A NOUN is the name of something.

36. Nouns are divided into two classes, common and proper.

1. A COMMON NOUN is a name which may be applied to any one of a class of things (*thing* = whatever may be spoken of, or thought of). For instance, the word *city* in the sentence,

Montreal is a great *city*,

is a common noun, because it may be used to name any one of the class of things we call *cities*.

2. A PROPER NOUN is the name of an individual thing. The word *Montreal*, as used in the sentence above, is the name of a particular city ; it is proper to that city. (*Proper* means "belonging to.")

3. A common noun is significant, *i.e.*, has a meaning.

A proper noun is not significant. The word *city* has a definite meaning, and is used to name only places of a certain size and character. The word *Montreal*, on the other hand, has now no meaning, and is used to name a city, an island, and a river.

4. The proper noun begins with a capital letter ; the common noun usually begins with a small letter.

5. A common noun becomes a proper noun when used as the special name of one thing.

Send me a copy of the *Herald*.

The *Tower* (of London) has held many notable prisoners.

6. A proper noun, on the other hand, becomes a

common noun when applied to all the members of a class of things.

There are two *Titians* in this gallery.
Several budding *Miltons* are in this class.

7. When some lifeless thing, some lower animal, some quality, or some emotion is personified, a common noun becomes a proper noun, and is written with a capital.

These shall the fury Passions tear,
The Vultures of the mind,
Disdainful Anger, pallid Fear,
And Shame that skulks behind.

GRAY, *On a Distant Prospect of Eton College*.

37. **Nouns are sometimes classified as ABSTRACT and CONCRETE**, but the distinction is of little or no value in grammar. An abstract noun is the name of a quality, condition, or relation that has no material existence. A concrete noun is the name of something that has a material existence outside of our minds.

Abstract nouns : beauty, strength, kindness, poverty.

38. **A COLLECTIVE NOUN¹** is the name of a group, or class of things, such as :

army, navy, flock, crowd, assemblage.

EXERCISE 23

Classify the nouns in the following passages as common and proper, and, when a noun is collective, state that fact also.

1. And here is a story of a Brigade Headquarters that lived in a house surrounded by a moat over which there was only one road. On Thursday, the enemy's artillery found the house, and later on, as the rush came, their rifle fire found it also. The staff went on with its work till the end of the week, when shells set the place alight, and they were forced to move. The road being impassable on account of shrapnel, they swam the moat, but one of them was badly wounded, and for him swimming was out of the question. Captain Scrimger, medical officer attached to the Royal Montreal Regiment, protected the wounded man with his own body against the shrapnel that was coming through the naked rafters, and carried him out of the

¹ "It is recommended that the term *collective* be not used except when needed in explaining the occasional use of a plural verb with a singular noun." (Report of the American Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature.)

blazing house into the open. Two of the staff, Brigadier-General Hughes (then Brigade-Major of the 3rd Infantry Brigade) and Lieutenant Thompson (then Assistant Adjutant, Royal Montreal Regiment) re-swam the moat, and, waiting for a lull in the shell fire, got the wounded man across the road on to a stretcher and into a dressing-station, after which they went on with their official duties.—BEAVERBROOK, *Canada in Flanders*.

2. Prize of the field, the young Buccleuch
 An English *knight* led forth to view;
 Scarce rued the *boy* his present *plight*,
 So much he longed to see the *fight*.
 Within the *lists*, in knightly pride,
 High Home and haughty Dacre ride ;
 Their leading *staffs* of *steel* they wield,
 As marshals of the mortal field ;
 While to each knight their *care* assigned
 Like *vantage* of the sun and wind.
 Then heralds hoarse did loud proclaim,
 In king and queen and warden's *name*,
 That none, while lasts the *strife*,
 Should dare, by look, or sign, or word,
 Aid to a champion to afford.

SCOTT, *Lay of the Last Minstrel*.

EXERCISE 24

Analyse the above extracts into clauses.

EXERCISE 25

Explain the grammatical relation of each of the italicised nouns in the extract 2 above.

II. CLASSIFICATION: GENDER

39. Nouns are classified as MASCULINE, FEMININE and NEUTER.

1. A noun denoting a male being is of the masculine gender.
2. A noun denoting a female being is of the feminine gender.
3. All other nouns are of the neuter gender. They are of two kinds, (a) the names of things without sex, (b) the names that are given indifferently to beings of both sexes.

4. Gender in Modern English is a distinction in words, corresponding to the distinction of sex in the objects they represent. Modern English is said, therefore, to have **natural gender**. Latin, French, and German, on the other hand, have **grammatical gender**, because the gender of nouns in these languages has been determined largely by the forms and derivations of words. For instance, Latin *murus*, wall, is masculine, and French *fourchette*, fork, is feminine. Old English had grammatical gender.

5. The distinction of gender in nouns is of importance in Modern English only in connection with the use of personal pronouns and possessive adjectives. Except in such connection, the gender of a noun may be ignored.

40. GENDER is indicated in several ways.

1. Different words are used:

father, mother ; lord, lady ; uncle, aunt ; hart, hind.

2. Some masculine nouns are made feminine by the addition of an ending :

heir, heiress ; prince, princess ; hero, heroine ; George, Georgina ; Henry, Henrietta.

Some foreign words retain their foreign forms:

Latin :	executor,	executrix.
French :	beau,	belle.
Italian :	signor,	signora.
Russian :	czar,	czarina.
Dutch :	landgrave,	landgravine.
Spanish :	don,	donna.

3. One feminine noun is made masculine by the addition of an ending :

widow, widower.

4. Gender is sometimes indicated by adding or prefixing a noun or a pronoun :

salesman, saleswoman ; landlord, landlady ; manservant, maidservant ; he-wolf, she-wolf ; bride, bridegroom.

5. Some Christian proper names are applied to men only, others to women only :

William, Thomas, Henry ; Mary, Ruth, Edith.

EXERCISE 26

Write the corresponding gender forms of the following nouns:

witch	countess	Joseph
administrator	nun	bull
Jew	hero	master
abbot	hunter	baron
murderer	marquis	actor
he-goat	tiger	host
niece	duck	brother
goose	heifer	deaconess
duke	sultan	sorcerer
god	lad	doe
waiter	benefactor	lion
tailor	emperor	wife
landlady	peacock	vixen

III. NUMBER

41. English nouns are inflected¹ to show number. The SINGULAR number of a noun denotes one single thing; the PLURAL number of a noun denotes more than one thing.

In Old English most nouns of the strong declension formed the nominative plural by the addition of the ending -as to the stem of the word, as in *stān*, *stānas* (stone). A few of the others changed the vowel of the stem, as in *fōt*, *fēt*; *man*, *men*. Nouns of the weak declension added -an to the stem, as in *nama*, *naman* (name); *tunge*, *tungan* (tongue). In Modern English most nouns add -(e)s to the stem. A few change the vowel of the stem, and fewer still add -(e)n to the stem.

42. A. Most nouns form their plurals by the addition of -s or -es to the singular, according to the sound of the word:

cat, cats; dog, dogs; loss, losses; buzz, buzzes;
match, matches.

I. When the ending -(e)s is added to certain words, other changes are made.

¹ INFLECTION is a change made in the form of a word to indicate a change in its meaning or use. The inflection of a noun or pronoun is called its DECLENSION. To decline a noun is to give its singular and plural forms in order.

(a) Many nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change the *f* to *v* :
 leaf, leaves ; wife, wives ; thief, thieves ; shelf, shelves.

But

cliff, cliffs ; muff, muffs ; chief, chiefs.

(b) Most nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant change *y* to *i* and add *-es* :

fly, flies ; lady, ladies ; country, countries ; berry, berries.

But nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel simply add *-s* :

monkey, monkeys ; chimney, chimneys ; boy, boys.

(c) Letters, figures, and quoted words generally form their plurals by adding *'s* :

m, m's ; 6, 6's ; if, if's.

2. Nouns ending in *o* are mostly of foreign origin.

(a) When the *o* is preceded by a vowel, *-s* is added :

folio, folios ; cameo, cameos.

(b) When the *o* is preceded by a consonant, *-es* is usually added :

buffaloes, cargoes, dominoes, echoes, heroes, mottoes, mosquitoes, negroes, potatoes, tornadoes, vетoes, torpedoes, volcanoes.

(c) But many of the last class add only *-s* :

albinos, banjos, cantos, casinos, contraltos, dynamos, lassos, octavos, pianos, provisos, quartos, solos, stilettos, tyros, virtuosos.

It will be noticed that many of the nouns in list (b) are used more frequently in familiar speech than are those in list (c).

(d) In the case of a few nouns the spelling is unsettled. They take either *-s* or *-es* :

halo, memento, zero, portico, grotto, calico.

B. A few nouns change the vowel sound of the stem.¹

man, men ; woman, women ; foot, feet ; goose, geese ; tooth, teeth ; brother, brethren.

¹This method of forming plurals is used with a large number of nouns in German, as :

Mann, Männer ; Fuss, Füsse ; Gans, Gänse ; Zahn, Zähne (tooth).
 (The mark over a vowel indicates a change of sound.)

C. One noun adds -en to the singular:

ox, oxen.

Three words have double plurals, -(e)n being added to a form already plural :

brother, brether (M.E.), brethren ; child, childer, children ; cow, kye, kine.

For further information concerning the plurals of native nouns see Appendix A.

43. FOREIGN PLURALS. A number of words taken from foreign languages form their plurals according to the rules of those languages. Many of these words have both foreign and English plurals, sometimes with different meanings for the two :

phenomenon	phenomena	axis	axes
nebula	nebulæ	basis	bases
madam	mesdames	crisis	crises
radius	radii	datum	data
stratum	strata	dictum	dicta
terminus	termini	genus	genera
thesis	theses	oasis	oases
vertebra	vertebrae	larva	larvæ
appendix	appendixes	formula	formulas
	appendices		formulæ
memorandum	memorandums		
	memoranda		
index	indexes (lists of items)		
	indices (signs used in algebra)		
genius	geniuses (men of exalted intellect)		
	genii (spirits)		
bandit	bandits (individuals)		
	banditti (an organised force)		
cherub	cherubs (models representing angels, beautiful children)		
	cherubim (angels of a certain rank)		

EXERCISE 27

Give the plural forms of the following nouns :

ally	army	baby	bamboo
basis	beef	belief	Brahman
brother	calf	Charles	chief
church	city	cliff	club
daisy	donkey	Dorothy	dwarf
elf	essay	eye	fife
folly	foot	fox	gas

genus	George	German	glass
grief	grotto	gulf	gymnasium
half	hoof	i	index
journey	key	knife	lady
larva	lasso	leaf	life
lily	loaf	Mary	mosquito
mouse	Mussulman	mystery	nebula
Norman	ox	+	penny
peony	proof	proviso	reef
root	self	sheaf	shelf
soliloquy	story	stratum	strife
studio	talisman	thief	tomato
torpedo	toy	turf	turkey
valley	vertebra	volcano	volley
wife	wolf	woman	worry
zero			

44. PLURALS OF COMPOUNDS.

1. Most compound nouns add -s to the last part of the compound, especially when this part is a noun:
spoonfuls, blackbirds, steamboats, afterthoughts.
2. But some compounds in which the first part is more important than the rest, add -s to the first part:
brothers-in-law, hangers-on, editors-in-chief.
3. Compound proper nouns pluralise the last part:
the Wilfred Orams, the Edward Everett Hales.
4. Usage varies with titles:
 - (a) Mr. William Brown, Messrs. William Brown, the Mr. William Browns. Mr. William and Mr. Thomas Brown, Messrs. William and Thomas Brown.
Miss Smith, the Misses Smith, or the Miss Smiths.
 - (b) Usually the last part of a compound title is pluralised:
major-generals, governor-generals, lieutenant-governors.
 - (c) A few obsolete titles and a few other nouns pluralise both parts:
Knights-Hospitallers, Lords Marchers (Lords of the Marches), men-servants, women-servants.

EXERCISE 28

Give the plurals of the following compound nouns and expressions:

aide-de-camp	governor-general	mouse-trap
bill of fare	handful	Mr. Bennett
bookcase	horseman	passer-by

castaway	looker-on	police magistrate
coat of mail	major-general	president-elect
commander-in-chief	man-eater	privy-councillor
court-martial	man-of-war	runner-up
courtyard	milkman	stepchild
Dr. Armstrong	man-servant	tooth-paste
Dutchman	mother-in-law	Miss Barr
footstool	wild-goose	William Pitt

45. EXCEPTIONAL USES.

1. Some nouns have the same form for singular and plural, either generally, or in certain cases:

swine, deer, fish, trout, salmon, sheep, pike, pair, dozen, heathen, people, ton, head, yoke, cannon, shot.

In a large class of Old English neuter names, such as *swine*, *deer*, and *sheep*, one case-form was used for the nominative and accusative cases, singular and plural, and in Middle-English times many other names came to have the same peculiarity through analogy.

Although the words mentioned above generally have the same forms for singular and plural, they sometimes have plurals in *-e*s.

There are several fishes (kinds of fish) in this lake.

We have six dozen eggs. Dozens of eggs are for sale.

The people are tired of war. The peoples (nationalities) of Europe are tired of war.

2. Some nouns, especially names of material, are seldom or never used in the plural, on account of their meaning:

tin, copper, lead, clay, ice, earth.

But

a ship's coppers, tins (kinds of tin, or, tin dishes, or cans), the clays (varieties of clay) of Quebec, earths (kinds of earth), the beauties of the St. Lawrence valley.

3. Some nouns are used ordinarily in the plural only:

aborigines, annals, antipodes, archives, athletics, bellows, breeches, credentials, dregs, eaves, filings, nuptials, pincers, premises, proceeds, scissors, shears, spectacles, statistics, suds, tidings, tongs, trousers, victuals, vitals, wages (but, a living wage).

4. A few nouns are plural in form but singular in meaning, unless specially used in the plural.

amends, barracks, billiards, gallows, innings, mathe-

matics, means (by this means), measles, mumps, news, optics, pains (troublé), physics, politics.

5. Several nouns have two plurals with different meanings:

brother	brothers (by birth) brethren (of a society)
cloth	clothes (clothing) cloths (varieties of cloth)
die	dice (cubes used in games) dies (for coining)
fish	fish (collective) fishes (individuals or kinds of fish)
heathen	heathen (collective) heathens (individuals)
pea	peas pease (collective)
penny	pennies (separate coins) pence (sum of money)
people	people (persons) peoples (nations)
shot	shot (bullets) shots (discharges)
staff	staffs (groups of officers) staves (sticks used for support)

For other examples see list under "Foreign Plurals."

EXERCISE 29

Which of the italicised forms is preferable in each case? Give reasons for your choice.

1. Mathematics *is* (*are*) studied with delight by most girls.
2. The ashes *was* (*were*) carried out by the janitor.
3. News of the victory *is* (*are*) sent far and wide.
4. How much did you pay for *this* (*these*) spectacles?
5. The United States *has* (*have*) taken part in the war against Germany.
6. Checkers *is* (*are*) a favourite game with Mrs. Dykes.
7. The seventh innings *is* (*are*) decisive.
8. Riches *does* (*do*) not bring happiness.
9. The eaves of the house *is* (*are*) thirty feet above the ground.
10. Alms *is* (*are*) given to the needy.
11. The people of Canada *is* (*are*) proud of the Canadian soldiers.
12. The mob *demands* (*demand*) the release of the prisoners.
13. The committee *is* (*are*) now in session, and as soon as *its* (*their*) report is brought in, *it* (*they*) will go home.

14. The annals of Canada *is (are)* concerned with the government of our country. All should be interested in *it (them)*.
15. Statistics *is (are)* said to be dull.
16. These men are *heathen (heathens)*.
17. The archives of Canada *is (are)* preserved at Ottawa.
18. By *this (these)* means he was able to accomplish his ends.
19. The *brothers (brethren)* of this society are to attend church in a body.

IV. CASE

46. You have already learned that English nouns have four cases, **nominative**, **genitive**, **dative**, and **accusative**, and two case-forms, the **common** and the **genitive**. The common case-form is used for the nominative, dative, and accusative cases, but for the genitive case English nouns have special forms.

47. FORMATION OF THE GENITIVE.

1. Singular nouns not ending in an s sound, add -'s to form the genitive case-form.

Mary's, John's, man's, cat's.

2. Singular nouns ending in an s sound, add an apostrophe, or -'s, according to the sound of the word. Sometimes both forms are used. When in doubt add -'s, or avoid the use of the genitive case.

Moses' laws, for his acquaintance' sake,
James's house, Jones's barn, Rice's store,
Æneas' (Æneas's) voyage, Beatrice' (Beatrice's) doll.

3. Plural nouns ending in s add an apostrophe only:
girls' skates, boys' boats, Canadians' rights.

4. Plural nouns not ending in an s sound, add -'s :
women's hats, the policemen's union.

5. Compound nouns and noun phrases add -'s at the end:

John Workman's house, her sister-in-law's carriage, the Prince of Wales' palace.

The same method is followed when a noun is preceded or followed by a title, or descriptive or limiting words:

Mr. John Thomas Crawford's algebra, John Carlyle Esquire's house, her dear friend Mary's letter.

48. When a thing belongs to two or more joint owners, only the last proper name has the sign of the genitive case:

Noden, Hallit and Johnston's store. This is William and Henry's chance (a joint chance) to have a holiday.

But when the ownership is not joint, each proper name should have the genitive form:

Noden's, Hallit's, and Johnston's stores. (Each has a store.)

49. **THE PHRASAL GENITIVE.** In most cases the genitive case-form may be replaced by a phrase with *of*:

Hindenburg's defeat: the defeat of Hindenburg.

When the noun that would be in the genitive case is not the name of a living being, we prefer the phrase:

the ravages of the disease, the top of the hill.

We sometimes avoid ambiguity by using a phrase:

the bat of the boys, the message of the girls.

Sometimes euphony decides our choice.

50. **The case-forms of the noun may be arranged thus:**

	SING.	PLUR.	SING.	PLUR.
Common :	boy	boys	man	men
Genitive :	boy's	boys'	man's	men's

EXERCISE 30

Give all the case-forms of the first ten nouns of the following list, and the singular and plural genitive forms of the rest. (This should be a written exercise.)

actress	diamond	ox	army
fox	princess	boat	girl
salmon	buffalo	goose	ship
chief	child	city	cliff
court	deer	Hindoo	James
lady	lynx	monkey	Mussulman
sparrow	thief	valley	Venus
wolf	woman		

EXERCISE 31

In each of the following expressions substitute the genitive case for the phrase introduced by "of." (This exercise should be written.)

1. The visit to Europe of President Wilson.
2. The armies of Haig and Pershing.

3. The warehouse of Knox Morgan and Co.
4. The children of Mr. and Mrs. Jermyn.
5. The novels of Scott and Dickens.
6. The oldest sons of Smith and Brown.
7. The home of my father-in-law.
8. The troubles of the teacher of mathematics.
9. The Funeral Oration of Pericles.
10. The students of either McGill or Toronto.
11. The loads of the pack-horses.
12. The wars of Frederick the Great.
13. The victory of William the Conqueror.

V. SYNTAX OF THE CASES

51. NOMINATIVE OF THE SUBJECT.

The commonest use of the nominative case is as subject of a verb:

The *nations* have formed a league.

52. NOMINATIVE ABSOLUTE.

1. *The enemy having yielded*, our soldiers came home.
2. *They (the enemy) having yielded*, our soldiers came home.
3. *Because the enemy had yielded*, our soldiers came home.

You will notice that the italicised phrases in the first and second sentences, and the subordinate clause in the third sentence, are all adverbial, since they tell *why* our soldiers came home. In the clause, the noun *enemy* is in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the clause; in the phrases, the noun *enemy* and the pronoun *they* are in the nominative case because of settled usage, not because of their grammatical relations with other words.

Because of this lack of dependence on other words for their case, *enemy* in No. 1, and *they* in No. 2, are said to be used absolutely, and the construction in which they are used is called the **Nominative Absolute**.¹

¹ In Old English the noun or pronoun in the absolute construction was in the dative case; while in Latin the ablative, and in Greek the genitive was used. In German the accusative is used.

In Milton are found examples of the accusative case used absolutely, e.g., "him destroyed." These are probably due to the influence of the Latin ablative absolute.

A phrase containing a substantive (noun or pronoun) in the nominative absolute case, consists usually of a substantive and a participle, but sometimes the participle is omitted for the sake of brevity.

The boxes were piled, *tier* (being piled) upon tier.

A phrase containing a substantive in the nominative absolute can usually be changed into an adverbial clause.

The snow coming very late, we had no sleighing for Christmas.

Because the snow came very late, we had no sleighing for Christmas.

The task (being) finished, we went home.

When the task had been finished }
When we had finished the task } we went home.

We often use the nominative absolute construction in preference to an adverbial clause, for the sake of brevity or variety.

EXERCISE 32

In each of the following sentences select the noun or pronoun in the nominative absolute, and change each adverbial phrase containing a nominative absolute into an adverbial clause.

1. The labours of the day being ended, you may now go to rest.

2. My friend having failed to be present, I shall do the best I can without her.

3. The weather and the tide being favourable, Cæsar set sail for Britain.

4. My story being done,
She gave me for my pains a world of sighs.
SHAKESPEARE, *Othello*.

5. This duty performed, all departed.

6. The King lay down, his heart heavy with sorrow.

7. "Doth God exact day-labour, light denied?"
I fondly ask.

MILTON, *On his Blindness*.

8. All things forgotten besides, they gave themselves up
To the maddening whirl of the dizzy dance.

LONGFELLOW, *Evangeline*.

9. Other help failing, I must die your debtor.

10. Whoso ask'd her for his wife,
The riddle told not, lost his life.

GOWER.

EXERCISE 33

Construct ten sentences containing nominative absolutes.

53. NOMINATIVE OF ADDRESS.

1. Judge me, O *God*, and plead my cause.
2. But *Thou*, O *Lord*, be merciful unto me.
3. *Sir*, I entreat you home to dinner.

In these sentences the italicised words are used to name or indicate the persons addressed by the speaker. In sentence 2, the pronoun *thou* has the nominative case-form, and so we say that substantives used in this way are in the **nominative of address**. Some languages have a special case-form for nouns used in address. In Latin it is called the Vocative.

Cur, amice, patriam amas? (My friend, why do you love your country?)

54. NOMINATIVE IN EXCLAMATION.

Immortal gods! how much does one man excel another!
Fools! they know not how much half exceeds the whole.

Ye gods! Must I endure all this?

Substantives used in exclamations like those italicised above, differ in function from those used in address, not only because they are used in exclamations, but because the persons named or indicated by them are not necessarily addressed.

55. NOMINATIVE IN APPosition.

1. When *Herod*, the *King*, had heard these things, he was troubled.
2. *Foch*, the French general, defeated the Germans.
3. Good *health*, your greatest *asset*, is of supreme importance.
4. *She*, my best *friend*, will surely help me.
5. My *friend*, *he* of the Club, will be here to-day.

In the first sentence the noun *King* is placed near the noun *Herod* (and after it), in order to describe the person named Herod. In each of the other sentences the second italicised substantive is used similarly, in **apposition** with (*i.e.*, placed next to) the first italicised substantive, in order to describe the thing named or indicated by the latter.

The phrase containing the substantive in apposition is usually separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

That the second substantive, the one in apposition, is in each instance in the same case as the first substantive, is shown in sentence 5, where the pronoun *he* has the nominative case-form.

Since the second substantive is used to describe the thing named or indicated by the first substantive, the function of a noun in apposition is manifestly adjectival.

EXERCISE 34

Classify the examples of the nominative case found in the following sentences, and explain the use of each.

1. Said Blaise, the listening monk, " Well done,
I doubt not thou art heard, my son."
BROWNING, The Boy and the Angel.
2. " You are old, Father William," the young man said.
CARROLL, Alice in Wonderland.
3. The Niobe of nations! there she stands,
Childless and crownless, in her voiceless woe.
BYRON, Childe Harold's Pilgrimage.
4. The ships being built according to the General's instructions, nothing remained but to wait for suitable weather.
5. Say, Heavenly Muse, shall not thy sacred vein
Afford a present to the Infant God ?
MILTON, On the Morning of Christ's Nativity.
6. Alas, poor Yorick! I knew him, Horatio.
SHAKESPEARE, Hamlet.
7. Harry Lauder, the Scottish comedian, is now visiting Canada.
8. Beautiful soup, so rich and green,
Waiting for a hot tureen !
Who for such dainties would not stoop ?
Soup of the evening, beautiful soup !
CARROLL, Alice in Wonderland.
9. But hail, thou Goddess sage and holy,
Hail, divinest Melancholy !
MILTON, Il Penseroso.
10. Rats!
They fought the dogs and killed the cats,
And bit the babies in the cradles.
BROWNING, The Pied Piper of Hamelin.
11. I am aware that thy follower, Black Quentin, lost a hand.—*SCOTT, The Fair Maid of Perth.*
12. Avenge, O Lord, thy slaughter'd saints.
MILTON, Sonnets.

13. Lloyd George, the Prime Minister of Great Britain, was born in a humble Welsh cottage.

14. Poor old Molly ! to have lost her pride and her cow.—
C. LAMB, *Letters*.

EXERCISE 35

1. Construct ten sentences, each one containing a nominative of address.
2. Construct ten sentences, each one containing a nominative in exclamation.
3. Construct ten sentences, each containing a nominative in apposition.

56. PREDICATE NOMINATIVE.

1. This is *she*. 2. It is *he*. 3. He became my *friend*.
4. She seems a *goddess*. 5. She seems *generous*.

In each of the first four sentences the italicised substantive completes the verb and modifies the subject. This use of the substantive is like that of the adjective *generous* in No. 5; in fact, each of the italicised substantives is used adjectively to modify another substantive, as well as to complete a verb. The case-forms of *she* and *he* in sentences 1 and 2, show that the italicised words are in the nominative case. A substantive used in this way to modify a subject in the nominative case, and to complete a verb, is said to be in the **predicate nominative case**.

EXERCISE 36

Select all examples of the predicate nominative case, and explain the relation of each.

1. Italy is a narrow country.
2. Mr. Church has remained mayor for five years.
3. A part of France became a desert during the war.
4. Mr. Clarke was president of the Literary Society.
5. This cloth will become a good coat.
6. England became a democracy many years ago.
7. This hat becomes the lady.
8. What you have done is a proof of your kindness of heart.
9. Ah ! then, if mine had been the painter's hand.

WORDSWORTH, *Elegiac Stanzas*.

10. Man is the architect of his own fortune.

EXERCISE 37

1. Construct ten sentences containing predicate nominatives.
2. Construct ten sentences containing nominative absolutes.

57. SPECIAL USES OF THE NOMINATIVE CASE.

1. Sometimes the subject is repeated for the sake of clearness, or emphasis, or in summing up a series.

There as I passed with careless steps and slow,
 The mingled notes came softened from below ;
 The swain, responsive as the milkmaid sung,
 The sober herd that lowed to meet their young,
 The noisy geese that gabbed o'er the pool,
 The playful children just let loose from school,
 The watch-dog's voice that bayed the whispering wind,
 And the loud laugh that spoke the vacant mind,
These all in sweet confusion sought the shade,
 And filled each pause the nightingale had made.

GOLDSMITH, *The Deserted Village*.

In the above passage the word *these* is inserted for the sake of clearness, as the first subjects are not near the verb.

Was there one flinched ? *Not a boy, not a boy* of them ;
 Straight on they marched to the dread battle's brunt.

LIVINGSTON, *The Volunteers of '85*.

Here the subject is repeated for the sake of emphasis.

2. Sometimes, after a sentence is begun, the writer or speaker changes the construction, and the substantive which was to have been the subject of the sentence is left without grammatical connection.

He whom royal eyes disown,
 When was his form to courtiers known ?

SCOTT, *The Lady of the Lake*.

EXERCISE 38

Select the nouns in these sentences which are in the nominative case, and explain how each is used.

1. Cæsar was declared Emperor.

2. O listen, listen, ladies gay !
 No haughty feet of arms I tell.

SCOTT, *Rosabelle*.

3. The skipper, he blew a whiff from his pipe,
 And a scornful laugh laughed he.

LONGFELLOW, *Wreck of the Hesperus*.

4. There never was knight like the young Lochinvar.

SCOTT, *Lochinvar*.

5. Break, break, break
At the foot of thy crags, O Sea !
TENNYSON.
6. In full-blown dignity see Wolsey stand,
Law in his voice, and fortune in his hand.
S. JOHNSON, *The Vanity of Human Wishes.*
7. Wouldst thou remain a beast with the beasts ?—
SHAKESPEARE, *Timon of Athens.*
8. Sweet bird ! thy bower is ever green.
LOGAN, *To the Cuckoo.*
9. Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears.
SHAKESPEARE, *Julius Cæsar.*
10. These nations, which were once our enemies, have now
become our friends.
- II. Our masters then
Were still, at least, our countrymen.
BYRON, *The Isles of Greece.*
12. The service past, around the pious man,
With steady zeal, each honest rustic ran.
GOLDSMITH, *The Deserted Village.*
13. The tame hawk in the castle yard,
How it screams to the lightning, with its wet
Jagged plumes overhanging the parapet !
E. B. BROWNING, *Isobel's Child.*
14. Tears, idle tears, I know not what they mean,
Tears from the depth of some divine despair
Rise in the heart, and gather to the eyes.
TENNYSON.

— 58. ACCUSATIVE OF THE DIRECT OBJECT.

The commonest use of the accusative case is as direct object of a verb or a preposition.

General Foch saved *Paris*.
Give assistance to your *friends*.

A few verbs take two direct objects, one of the person, the other of the thing affected or produced by the act.

They asked him many *questions*.
The warrior struck me a *blow*.

Occasionally a verb that is regularly intransitive, takes as direct object a noun whose meaning resembles its own.¹ Sometimes verb and object are derived from the same root.

The boys ran *races*.
The allies have fought a good *fight*.
The children ran *errands*.

¹ Such objects are called cognate. The name is, however, unimportant.

59. ACCUSATIVE OF THE RETAINED OBJECT.

1. Our friends gave us a *present*.
2. A *present* was given(to)us by our friends. R.J.O.
3. We were given a *present* by our friends.
4. They asked *me* three *questions*.
5. *I* was asked three *questions* by them.

Sentences 1 and 2 illustrate the common and reasonable way of turning an active sentence into a passive one. Notice that the direct object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb. Sentence 3 represents an unusual and illogical method of turning an active sentence into a passive one. The indirect object, *us*, of sentence 1 becomes the subject, *we*, of sentence 3, while the direct object, *present*, remains in No. 3 as a **Retained Object**. Such sentences as No. 3 violate our practice of simple and direct speech.¹ In sentence 4 there are two direct objects. One of them becomes the subject of the verb in No. 5, and the other object, *question*, remains in No. 5 as a retained object.

EXERCISE 39

Select the substantives in the accusative case, and explain the use of each.

1. The premier was given a hearty reception on his return.
2. His friend asked Antonio the reason of his sadness.
3. Thou singest now a sweeter song
For all the world to hear.
4. The bells were ringing a merry peal on November 11th, 1918.
5. The men were given more pay for working at night.
6. His eyes looked daggers at his foes.
7. The cowardly man struck the boy a heavy blow.
8. I would fain die a dry death.—SHAKESPEARE, *Tempest*.
9. Longboat ran his fastest.
10. A small boy asks his parents many difficult questions.
11. Fight the good fight with all thy might.

¹ In Latin, French, and German, the indirect object of the active is never made the subject of the passive. For instance, the French equivalents of the examples given above would be :

Nos amis nous ont donné un *cadeau*.
Un *cadeau* nous a été donné par nos amis.

60. ADJUNCT ACCUSATIVE.

1. Mother *makes* the tea *sweet*.
2. Mother *sweetens* the tea.

The adjective *sweet* in the first sentence has two functions: (1) it describes the tea after the latter is acted upon, and (2) it completes the sense of the verb *makes*. This last point is shown clearly by the fact that *sweetens* in sentence 2 expresses the same idea as *makes sweet* in sentence 1.

Nouns are used in the same construction.

1. I call him my *friend*.
2. The society elected me *president*.
3. We consider them our *benefactors*.

In each of these sentences the italicised noun completes the sense of the verb, and modifies the direct object. If the infinitive *to be* were supplied in the third sentence,

We consider them to be our *benefactors*.

the word *benefactors* would be the complement of *to be*, and would, therefore, be in the same case as the pronoun *them* (accusative). We may, therefore, consider all the italicised nouns in sentences 1-3 to be in the accusative case.

Nouns used in the predicate of the sentence to complete the sense of the verb, and to modify the direct object of the verb, are said to be in the **Adjunct Accusative Case**. (*Adjunct* means *joined to*. Latin *ad*, to, and *jungo*, join.)

61. ACCUSATIVE WITH INFINITIVE.

1. I consider that he is our friend.
2. I consider *him* to be our *friend*.

In sentence 1, the clause *that he is our friend* is the object of the verb *consider*. In sentence 2, the object of *consider* is the infinitive clause *him to be our friend*, in which *him* is subject and *friend* is complement of the verb *to be*. The pronoun *him* has the accusative case-form, and *friend*, as the complement of *to be*, and the modifier of *him*, must also be in the accusative case. Both subject and complement of an infinitive are, therefore, in the accusative case.¹

¹ In English we may say either "He thinks me to be his friend," or "He thinks (that) I am his friend," though the latter construction is more frequently used; but in Latin we must use the accusative with the infinitive, as, "Existimat me esse amicum."

The following sentences contain other examples of this construction.

1. They declared *him* to be a *madman*.
2. The crowd saw *her* depart.
3. We believe our *leader* to have been wronged.

EXERCISE 40

Name, and explain the use of, each accusative case found in the following sentences :

1. The people elected Washington President of the United States.

2. I judged him to be a foreigner.

3. Mr. Gladstone lived a long and useful life.

4. He frankly avowed himself to be Wilfred of Ivanhoe.

—SCOTT, *Ivanhoe*.

5. And the gods of Greek tradition
Make the earth their dwelling-place.

A. M. MACHAR, *Schiller's Dying Vision*.

6. This worthy man was appointed guard and given the emblem of his office.

7. I do call him a slanderous coward and a villain.—SHAKESPEARE, *King Richard II*.

8. Sometimes a-dropping from the sky
I heard the sky-lark sing.

COLERIDGE, *The Ancient Mariner*.

9. Talking of the eminent writers in Queen Anne's reign, he observed, "I think Dr. A. the first man among them."—BOSWELL, *Life of Dr. Johnson*.

10. I am sure that indolence is the true state of man.—C. LAMB, *Letters*.

11. Chiefs, who guided through the gloom
By the pale death-lights of the tomb
Bade the dead arise to arms.

SCOTT, *Lay of the Last Minstrel*.

12. The father of Penrod asked Sam many questions.

13. So he commanded his man to light the candle.—BUNYAN, *The Pilgrim's Progress*.

14. Jesse expected his eldest son to be made king.

62. ADVERBIAL ACCUSATIVE.

1. The boys walked ten *miles*.

2. My string is three *inches* longer than yours.

3. He works a long *distance* away.

Note

The noun *miles* modifies the verb *walked*. The noun *inches* modifies the adjective *longer*. The noun *distance*

modifies the adverb *away*. Each of these nouns, therefore, is used adverbially. In Old English, nouns used in this way had the accusative case-form, and we therefore call this use of the noun in Modern English the **Adverbial Accusative**.

63. ACCUSATIVE OF EXCLAMATION.

Unhappy *me*! Ah *me*!

In such exclamations as the above, the accusative form of the pronoun is used. Since the nominative case is also used in exclamations (see section 54), nouns used in this same way are treated as being in the nominative case, since they have no special form for the accusative:—

Alas the *day*!

EXERCISE 41

Select all substantives in the nominative or the accusative case, and explain the grammatical relation of each.

1. The trench was seven feet deep.
2. The landlord consented to allow me a pound a week.—

BORROW, *The Romany Rye*.

3. This place is called the Slough of Despond.
4. You will find Spencer mentioned a page or two before.—

LAMB, *Letters*.

5. Alas! poor man! his child is very sick.
6. We know the French to be splendid fighters.

7. Under the keel nine fathom deep,
From the land of mist and snow,
The spirit slid.

COLERIDGE, *The Ancient Mariner*.

8. Talbot was given a grant of land in Upper Canada.
9. But on the preceding night, my landlord having behaved very rudely to me, I had resolved not to remain another night in his house.—BOSWELL, *Life of Johnson*.

10. As I walked home last night, I saw a shooting star rush across the sky.

11. Before their eyes the wizard lay,
As if he had not been dead a day,
His hoary beard in silver rolled,
He seemed some seventy winters old.

SCOTT, *The Lay of the Last Minstrel*.

~~OMIT~~ 64. DATIVE OF THE INDIRECT OBJECT

The commonest use of the dative case is as **Indirect**

Object of a verb, to denote the thing *to which* something is, or is not, done.

He gave the *boy* money.
He sent *them* presents.

65. DATIVE OF REFERENCE OR CONCERN.

The dative case is used also to denote the thing *for* which something is, or is not, done.

His silver hairs will purchase *us* a good opinion.
You made your *brother* a kite.

This construction is called the **Dative of Reference or Concern.**

Notice that both the dative of the indirect object and the dative of reference or concern may be replaced by prepositional phrases.

He gave money *to the boy*.
You made a kite *for your brother*.

66. SPECIAL USES OF THE DATIVE.

1. With certain impersonal verbs, most of which are now archaic.

Methinks there is much reason in his sayings.
Meseemeth then it is no policy.

In these sentences *methinks* and *meseemeth* both mean "it seems to me." *Thinks* in *methinks* is derived from an Old English verb *thynkan*, *to seem*, not *thencan*, *to think*. Another example of such a dative is :

It likes *me*.

2. In a few exclamations like "Woe is me!"

EXERCISE 42

Select the nouns or pronouns in the dative case in these sentences, and tell how each is used.

1. Once I did Katie a good turn.

2. Methinks King Richard and myself should meet
With no less terror than the elements
Of fire and water.

SHAKESPEARE, *King Richard II.*

3. In him woke the noble wish
To give his child a better bringing-up
Than his had been.

TENNYSON, *Enoch Arden.*

4. He did his people lasting good.

5. Me lists not tell what words were made,
What Douglas, Home, and Howard said.

SCOTT, *Lay of the Last Minstrel.*

6. That was the four-year-old I sold the Squire.

7. Woe worth the chase, woe worth the day,
That cost thy life, my gallant gray !

SCOTT, *Lady of the Lake.*

8. I am not yet of Percy's mind, the Hotspur of the north ;
he that kills me some six or seven dozen of Scots at a breakfast.—SHAKESPEARE, *I King Henry IV.*

9. Yes, sir, it does that lady honour, but it would do nobody else honour.—BOSWELL, *Life of Johnson.*

10. "Archers," he cried, "send me an arrow through yon monk's frock."

EXERCISE 43 (REVIEW)

Name the case-construction of each italicised substantive, and explain its grammatical relation.

1. The *sun* having risen, we went our way.

2. Many *years* ago, in a distant country lived a witch whose name was *Gerthilda*.

3. The teachers have made *Mr. Bennett* their *representative* on the committee.

4. Premier Clemenceau of France has been appointed *chairman* of the Peace Conference.

5. The ladies tell *us* that this gown becomes the *hostess*.

6. This gentleman does his *friends* many *favours*.

7. Sir Thomas White was given the *office* of Minister of Finance.

8. Florence tells her *father* that it is necessary to give *women* their rights.

9. Mr. Jermyn has spent much *time* teaching his *pupils* the *causes* of the Great War.

10. The carpenters will build *Mr. Clarke* a house.

11. We knew the *inhabitants* of the island to be kind-hearted *peasants*.

12. Do you think that these words will become a *proverb* ?

13. Cæsar told his *friends* that he would rather be first *man* in a village than second in Rome.

14. A little *distance* from the prow
Those crimson shadows were.

COLERIDGE, *The Ancient Mariner.*

15. Give every *man* thy ear, but few thy voice.

16. By this legislation the slaves were made *citizens*.

17. Our wounded soldiers should be given every *attention*.

67. GENITIVE OF POSSESSION.

The commonest use of the genitive case is to denote ownership.

*Whose kite is this? It is John's kite.
Canada's resources are very great.*

68. GENITIVE OF CONNECTION.

An outgrowth of the idea of possession is that of "connection with."¹ For instance:

The *war's* delays = The delays connected with the war.

A *three weeks'* holiday = The holiday connected with three weeks.

This *man's* assistance is valuable.

Lincoln's election was a great triumph.

69. The genitive case is often replaced by a phrase introduced by *of*. In the case of the names of animals and inanimate things, such a phrase is usually preferred to the genitive case.

The legs of the table. The horns of the dilemma.

Sometimes we have a phrase with *of* containing a genitive case.

A speech of *Wilson's* = One of Wilson's speeches.

A horse of *my uncle's* = One of my uncle's horses.

That nose of *your brother's*.

The third of these expressions is quite illogical.

You will have noticed that the substantive in the genitive case, in each of the uses explained above, modifies another substantive, as an adjective would. In the phrase *John's book*, the meaning of the word *book* is modified by the word *John's*, just as it is modified by an adjective in the phrase *yellow book*, or *this book*.

¹ The name *genitive of connection* is wide enough to include all uses of the genitive case except that of possession. The last two examples of the genitive given in section 68 are classified by some grammarians as subjective and objective genitives. The distinctions indicated by these names are, however, of no practical value. The classification of case-uses should be made simple, especially in school grammars.

EXERCISE 44

Select the nouns in the genitive case in the following sentences, and tell which use of the case each one illustrates. Give the relation of each.

1. "Look at the clock!" quoth Winifred Pryce,
As she open'd the door to her husband's knock.

BARHAM, *The Ingoldsby Legends.*

2. This fate was Wolsey's.
3. The blind old man of Scio's rocky isle.
4. The German General's defeat at the Marne saved the day for the French.
5. His wife's remedy for the plague was washing her head in vinegar.—DEFOE, *Journal of the Plague Year.*
6. Lincoln's assassination brought evil to the South.
7. By how much better than my word I am,
By so much shall I falsify men's hopes.

SHAKESPEARE, I *King Henry IV.*

8. This is to be a story in which jackdaws will wear peacocks' feathers.—THACKERAY, *The Newcomes.*

9. "Sir," said he, "let not that madman's threats trouble you."—CERVANTES, *Don Quixote.*

10. The great World-victor's victor will be seen no more.

TENNYSON, *Ode on the Death of the Duke of Wellington.*

11. What though the spicy breezes
Blow soft o'er Ceylon's isle!

R. HEBER.

12. A contented mind lessens life's troubles.

70. SUBSTANTIVES IN APPosition.

In Sect. 55 the nominative in apposition was explained, and you learned that when one substantive is in apposition with another, the two are in the same case. From the following examples you will learn that all the cases are used in the appositive construction.

John, the *King*, was faithless. (Nominative.)

The barons defeated John, the *King*. (Accusative.)

Give my friend, *John Jones*, my compliments. (Dative.)

George's, my friend's, boat, is new. (Genitive.)

We feel that the use of the second genitive in the last sentence is clumsy, and usually substitute for it a prepositional phrase:

The boat of my friend, George, is new.

71. SPECIAL CASES.

1. Construction with *as*.

Sometimes two substantives are apparently connected

by the particle *as*, which, however, does not affect the case of the noun following it.

As an alderman, he is useful.
They elected him *as* president.

In the first sentence, the word *alderman*, in the nominative case, is in apposition with *he*. In the second sentence, the word *president*, in the accusative case, is an example of an adjunct accusative. In neither case does the word *as* do more than introduce the substantive that follows it.

This construction is doubtless the result of ellipsis. In the complete sentence, *as* would be a conjunction. As used here, it has largely lost its conjunctive value, and therefore is called a **Conjunctive Particle** (sect. 33).

2. Construction with *to be*.

The verb *to be* is also used sometimes to connect two substantives without affecting the case of either.

He seems to be victor in this struggle.
He seems victor in this struggle.

In each of these sentences the word *victor* modifies the subject *he*. In the first sentence, *victor* is complement of *seems to be*; in the second one, it is complement of *seems*.

72. SUMMARY OF THE ORDINARY CASE-USSES.

NOMINATIVES :

Nom. of the subject
Nom. absolute

The *boys* like good reading.
Our *friends* having done their best,
we shall assist them.

Nom. of address
Nom. in exclamation
Nom. in apposition

Friends, help me in this task.
Horrors! they have come.
Lloyd George, *Premier* of Great Britain.

Predicate nom.

He is my *friend*.

ACCUSATIVES :

Acc. of the direct obj.

They praised *him*. I gave it to *him*.

Acc. of ret. obj.

I was given a *book*.

They chose her queen.

Pred. adj. Adjunct acc.
subj. of Acc. and infinitive

I believe *him* to be my *enemy*.

Adverbial acc.

This stick is six *inches* long.

Acc. in exclamation

Ah *me*!

New Accusatives.

DATIVES :

- Dat. of the indirect obj. Give *him* this book.
 Dat. of ref. or concern I shall buy *him* a sled.

GENITIVES :

- Gen. of possession *Tom's* dog is a good one.
 Gen. of connection *Thursday's* lesson.

ANY CASE IN APPosition Sect. 70.

73. PARSING OF NOUNS.

To parse (Latin, *pars*, a part) a word is to give its classification (part of speech, class, and sub-class), inflection, and relation in the sentence. Since the classification of nouns as common, proper, abstract, etc., and as masculine, feminine, and neuter, is not usually very important, it is customary to confine the parsing of a noun to the following particulars: part of speech, number, case, relation. The underlined nouns in the following sentence would, therefore, be parsed as indicated below. (See page 268.)

My brothers have invited their friend, the explorer.

brothers, noun, plural, nominative, subject of *have invited*.
 friend noun, sing., acc., dir. obj. of *have invited*.
 explorer, noun, sing., acc., in appos. with *friend*.

(It is customary to abbreviate, as has been done in the last two cases.)

EXERCISE 45

A

Parse the italicised nouns in the following sentences.

1. The children of the *poet* have been told many *fairy stories*.

2. How like a *prodigal* doth *Nature* seem.

J. R. LOWELL, *To the Dandelion*.

3. And lo ! among the menials, in mock state,

Upon a piebald *steed*, with shambling gait,

His *cloak* of fox-tails flapping in the wind,

King Robert rode.

LONGFELLOW, *King Robert of Sicily*.

4. My father died when I was about seven *years* old,
 and left me to the care of four *guardians*.—DE QUINCEY,
Confessions of an English Opium-Eater.

5. *Athens'* triumph at *Salamis* was the *triumph* of
 civilisation.

6. And we prayed the *prayer* of soldiers, and we cried the *gathering cry*.

AYTOURN, *The Burial March of Dundee*.

7. Would you rather hear the *locust* and the *grasshopper*
Their melancholy *hurdy-gurdy* play?

LONGFELLOW, *The Birds of Killingworth*.

8. Then, because his wound was deep,
The bold Sir Bedivere uplifted him,
Sir Bedivere, the *last* of all his knights,
And bore him to a chapel nigh the *field*.

TENNYSON, *Morte d'Arthur*.

9. The attempt cost *France* the most industrious and
virtuous *part* of her population.—PARKMAN, *Montcalm and Wolfe*.

10. This wise father taught his *son* much *Latin* and *Greek*.

B

1. Dr. Leach told his *friend*, *Mr. McMahon*, that in early life he had intended to be a *teacher*.

2. A *year* and more, with rush and roar
The surf had rolled it over.

J. R. LOWELL, *The Finding of the Lyre*.

3. Each age has deemed the new-born *year*
The fittest *time* for festal cheer.

SCOTT, *Marmion*.

4. These tailors will make a *man* a *suit* on very short notice.

5. The dog had been through three *months'* space
A *dweller* in that savage place.

WORDSWORTH, *Fidelity*.

6. The slaves were given their *freedom* by this proclamation.

7. Julius Cæsar was appointed *Governor* of Gaul.

8. Sometimes a-dropping from the sky
I heard the *sky-lark* sing.

COLERIDGE, *The Ancient Mariner*.

9. Rose then a sage old *warrior*;

Was five-score *winters* old;

Whose beard from chin to girdle

Like one long *snow-wreath* rolled.

10. The next morning we all set out together, my *family* on horseback, while Mr. Burchell, our new *companion*, walked along the footpath.—GOLDSMITH, *The Vicar of Wakefield*.

74. You have already learned, in Chapter I., sections 30, 31, that phrases and clauses are used as parts of speech. Noun and pronoun phrases and substantive clauses are used in most of the constructions described under "Syn-

tax of the Cases," in sections 51-72. The following are examples :

PHRASES

- | | |
|---|-------------------------|
| 1. The <i>Duke of Devonshire</i> is Governor-General. | Nom. of the subject |
| 2. These <i>ne'er do wells</i> having failed, we shall have to finish their task. | Nom. absolute |
| 3. Mr. <i>Man of the hour</i> , help us in this difficulty. | Nom. of address |
| 4. Our Governor-General, the <i>Duke of Devonshire</i> , is here. | Nom. in apposition. |
| 5. This fellow is certainly a <i>good for nothing</i> . | Pred. nominative. |
| 6. They admire <i>each other</i> (<i>one another</i>). | Acc. of direct obj. |
| 7. I was given a <i>pig in a poke</i> . | Acc. of retained obj. |
| 8. The King made him <i>Duke of Cornwall</i> . | Adjunct acc. |
| 9. I believe the <i>man of war</i> to have sunk. | Acc. with infin. |
| 10. Give this <i>ne'er do well</i> a thrashing. | Dat. of indir. obj. |
| 11. I shall purchase the <i>Duchess of Richmond</i> a horse. | Dat. of ref. or concern |
| 12. We took <i>each other's</i> books. | Gen. of possession. |
| 13. The <i>Man in the Moon's</i> duties are light. | Gen. of connection. |

CLAUSES

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. <i>What he did</i> interests me much. | Nom. of the subj. |
| 2. <i>What he wanted</i> having been granted, he is delighted. | Nom. absolute. |
| 3. The fact that <i>he has escaped</i> is damaging. | Nom. in apposition. |
| 4. What he wants is not always <i>what he needs</i> . | Pred. nom. |
| 5. Do you know that <i>the house is on fire</i> ? | Acc. of dir. obj. |
| 6. He was content with <i>what he had acquired</i> . | Acc. of dir. obj. |
| 7. He was given <i>what he had asked</i> . | Acc. of retained obj. |
| 8. We were told that <i>the waves were high</i> . | Acc. of retained obj. |
| 9. Fate made me <i>what I am</i> . | Adjunct acc. |
| 10. I found <i>what I had ordered</i> to be <i>what I needed</i> . | Acc. with infin., (1) as subj., (2) as comp. |

75. SPECIAL USES OF SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

1. As logical subject or object, when the word *it* is grammatical subject or object.

It was evident that they were angry.

Is it true that he has failed?

It pleases me that he has succeeded.

We shall arrange it that he is punished.

We consider it unjust that he should be punished.

Although the subordinate clause in each of the first three examples is logical, or thought, subject of the sentence, it is grammatically in apposition with the pronoun *it*. In each of the last two sentences the subordinate clause is logical object of the verb, but is grammatically in apposition with the pronoun *it*.

Noun phrases are used in the same way.

It is easy to do that.

We consider it unjust to injure our neighbours.

2. With *but that*.

I cannot believe but that he is honest.

You did not know but that they would come.

In each of these sentences the substantive clause commencing with *that* is the object of the preposition *but*. Each sentence is elliptical. The first one might be filled out as follows :

I cannot believe anything but that he is honest.

3. In many cases clauses that are substantive in origin, perform the functions of adjectives or adverbs.

(a) *I insist that you do this* (on your doing this).

(b) *We are glad that you have come* (of your coming).

(c) *There is great hope that peace will come soon* (of peace coming soon).

The subordinate clause in (a) tells what I insisted on, and, when the clause is changed to a phrase, *on* is used. However, since the preposition is omitted before the clause, the latter may properly be considered to modify the verb *insist*, and to have the value of an adverb. In (b) the subordinate clause modifies the adjective *glad*. In (c) it modifies the noun *hope*, and is, therefore, adjectival.

Other examples are :

There is great need that you should work.

I do not care what you think about it.

We were sorry that you failed.

There is evidence that they will try again.

4. After an interjection.

O, that my friend had come!

The substantive clause is here the object of the wish implied in the use of the interjection.

5. Infinitive clauses.

I believe *him to be my friend*.

The public considered *him to be honest*.

Since the expression *him to be my friend* consists of a subject and a predicate, it may properly be called a clause.

EXERCISE 46

Select the noun and pronoun phrases and the substantive clauses in the following sentences, and explain the grammatical relation of each.

1. We were promised what was left by the others.
2. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.
3. The truth of the matter is that they do not try to help each other.
4. We laugh at the idea, that the sun goes round the earth.
5. The lawyer was very angry at what he had heard.
6. What more I have to say is short.
WORDSWORTH, *Simon Lee*.
7. O, that I could forget what I have been,
Or not remember what I must be now!
SHAKESPEARE, *King Richard II*.
8. "In my youth," Father William replied to his son,
"I feared it might injure the brain;
But now that I'm perfectly sure I have none,
Why, I do it again and again."
CARROLL, *Alice in Wonderland*.
9. It is your own fault that I have been roused to speak so unguardedly.—C. BRONTË, *Jane Eyre*.
10. O, that this too, too solid flesh would melt!
SHAKESPEARE, *Hamlet*.
11. The heart, distrusting, asks if this be joy.
GOLDSMITH, *The Deserted Village*.

12. Feeling now quite at ease with him, I expressed a regret that I could not be so easy with my father.—BOSWELL, *Life of Dr. Johnson*.

13. Perhaps you take it to heart that you were unhorsed the other day.—CERVANTES, *Don Quixote*.

14. There is nothing but ups and downs in this world.—CERVANTES, *Don Quixote*.

15. You may have this comfort, that the calamity will not happen in your days.—*BEDÆ, The Ecclesiastical History of England.*

16. Surprised at his saying that I had fifty pounds in my pocket, I asked Mr. Petulengro what he meant ; whereupon he told me that he was very sure that I had fifty pounds in my pocket, offering to lay me five shillings to that effect. " Done," said I : " I have scarcely more than the fifth part of what you say."—*BORROW, The Romany Rye.*

17. Sancho told her Grace that he was accustomed to take a good nap, some four or five hours long, in a summer's afternoon ; but to do her good honour a kindness, he would break an old custom for once, and do his best to hold up that day, and wait on her worship.—*CERVANTES, Don Quixote.*

CHAPTER III

THE PRONOUN

76. A PRONOUN is a substitute for a noun. It represents something without naming it.

77. Pronouns are classified as follows:

Personal	Interrogative
Possessive	Relative
Demonstrative	Indefinite

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

78. PERSONAL PRONOUNS distinguish between the person speaking, the person spoken to, and the person or thing spoken of.

The forms of the personal pronouns are as follows:

	FIRST PERSON		SECOND PERSON	
	Sing.	Plural	Sing.	Plural
Nom.	I	we	you (thou)	you (ye)
Acc.-Dat.	me	us	you (thee)	you
THIRD PERSON				
	Sing.		Plural	
Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	All genders	
Nom.	he	she	it	they
Acc.-Dat.	him	her	it	them

For the Old English forms of these pronouns see sect. 232.

EXERCISE 47

1. "We are very industrious pupils." Why do you say that *we* is in the first person and the plural number? Change *we* to the corresponding forms of the second and third persons. What difference in meaning does each change make?

2. How many cases have the personal pronouns? How many case-forms? What causes this difference?

3. In which of these pronouns is the acc.-dat. case-form the same as the nom. case-form?
4. In which instances are the acc.-dat. case-forms quite different words from the nom. case-forms.
5. Which of the personal pronouns distinguishes gender?

79. USE OF GENDER FORMS.

1. The masculine and feminine forms in the singular of the third person are used to mark distinctions of sex, either in living creatures or in personified objects.

The moon is up, for I can see *her* in the sky.

Our custom with regard to personification is varied and inconsistent, since both Latin and French influence have altered more or less Old English usage. However, "the general principle is to give the masculine gender to words suggesting such ideas as strength, fierceness, terror, while the feminine gender is associated with the opposite ideas of gentleness, delicacy, beauty, together with fertility." ¹

masc. : sun, summer, time, winter, death, rage, war.

fem. : moon, spring (season), dawn, mercy, peace, earth.

2. *He* is frequently used when no distinction of sex is made concerning the person mentioned.

Each person must decide for *himself* which leader *he* prefers.

EXERCISE 48

Classify the personal pronouns in the following sentences, and explain the relation of each.

1. "They told me you had been to her,
And mentioned me to him ;
She gave me a good character,
But said I could not swim.

" He sent them word I had not gone
(We knew it to be true!) .
If she should push the matter on,
What would become of you ?

" I gave her one, they gave him two,
You gave us three or more ;
They all returned from him to you,
Though they were mine before.

¹ Sweet, New English Grammar.

" If I or she should chance to be
 Involved in this affair,
 He trusts to you to set them free
 Exactly as they were.

" My notion was that you had been
 (Before she had this fit)
 An obstacle that came between
 Him, and ourselves, and it.

" Don't let him know she liked them best,
 For this must ever be
 A secret, kept from all the rest,
 Between yourself and me."

CARROLL, *Alice in Wonderland*.

2. " God save thee, Ancient Mariner !
 From the fiends, that plague thee thus!
 Why look'st thou so ? "

COLERIDGE, *The Ancient Mariner*.

3. We all thought the boy to be you.
 4. Ah me ! What can the matter be ?
 5. I heard thee speak me a speech once, but it was never
 acted.—SHAKESPEARE, *Hamlet*.

EXERCISE 49

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with the proper forms of the personal pronouns. Give the reason for each choice.

(a) *I or me.*

1. He is as good a scholar as ____.
2. It was ____ who rang the bell.
3. No one is here but ____.
4. He thought the stranger to be ____.
5. He came in before ____.
6. Between you and ____, he has been treated badly.
7. What would you do, if you were ____ ?
8. He dislikes such a man as ____.
9. He informed me that it was ____ who had been chosen.

(b) *we or us.*

1. They are better than ____.
2. They reached school as soon as ____.
3. He said that it was ____ who had been invited.
4. Everyone believes the culprits to be ____.
5. If it had been ____, they would have answered at once.
6. The teacher detained all except ____.
7. Mother divided the candy between them and ____.
8. Whom did he blame, you or ____ ?
9. Which team will win, Parkdale or ____ ?

(c) *he or him.*

1. All but —— had fled.
2. They declared it to be ——.
3. A coward like —— would never enlist.
4. I know that you are younger than ——.
5. Which of the boys will go, if not —— ?
6. We all went home, —— among the rest.
7. We all thought —— to be the winner.
8. Which should do this work, John or —— ?
9. —— that plays best, the boys will make captain.

(d) *she or her.*

1. I like both you and ——.
2. He studies more than ——.
3. They declared it was ——.
4. Who can answer this question, if not —— ?
5. We saw Sarah and —— driving to town.
6. If I were ——, I should go to school.
7. Whom shall we reward, if not —— ?
8. The teacher supposed it to be ——.
9. All the girls but —— are present.

(e) *they or them.*

1. I have given as much as ——.
2. Pupils such as —— succeed.
3. We thought the visitors to be ——.
4. The minister replied that it was —— who had come.
5. There was no one in the room but ——.
6. You are not as foolish as ——.
7. —— that desert, the law will punish.
8. He spoke little to anyone except ——.
9. Whom are you going to send, if not —— ?

80. SPECIAL USES OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

1. The plural forms, *we* and *us*, are sometimes used instead of *I* and *me* by such persons as sovereigns, editors, and clergymen.

We wish our readers to understand the situation.

We, George V., King of Great Britain and Ireland.

2. The pronouns *thou*, *thee* and *ye* (*see* table, section 78) are now used in ordinary speech only by a section of the Quakers. In poetry, however, in Scripture, and in other solemn and impassioned literature, they are used frequently.

Stern lawgiver! yet *thou* dost wear
 The Godhead's most benignant grace ;
 Nor know we anything so fair
 As is the smile upon *thy* face.

WORDSWORTH, *Ode to Duty*.

Freely *ye* have received, freely give.—Matthew x. 8.

3. In such a sentence as,

We boys play ball, and *you* girls watch the game,
 the pronouns *we* and *you* are used as demonstrative
 adjectives to modify the nouns *boys* and *girls*. Another
 view is that *boys* and *girls* are in apposition with the
 pronouns *we* and *you*.

4. The pronoun *it* has one special use :¹

As impersonal subject or object.

How far is *it* to Montreal ?

They footed *it* through the mud.

What time is *it* ?

These uses are called impersonal because the pronoun *it* in these sentences does not represent any definite thing that can be named. No noun can be substituted for *it* in any one of these sentences.

EXERCISE 50

Classify each italicised word, and explain its grammatical relation in the sentence.

1. *It* is going to be a fine day.
2. *Ye* Mariners of England!
3. *We* shall take for our text these verses from the Book of Job.
4. *It* was evident that the man was suffering.

¹ Two other special uses of the pronoun *it* are mentioned by some grammarians. *It* is described as the expletive, or representative, subject or object in such sentences as the following : *It is easy to do that.* *I shall arrange it that he helps you.* *It* is said to represent the clause or phrase that follows. Then *it* is described as a colourless substantive, or an indefinite subject, in such sentences as the following : *It is John who did it.* *Who is it ?* *It is my friend.* These distinctions are of little value, as far as the treatment of the word *it* is concerned, since in all these examples it is plainly the grammatical subject or object of the verb. For a discussion of the grammatical value of such phrases as *to do that* and such clauses as *that he helps you*, in the first two examples above, see Sect. 75 (1). For these special uses of *it* see *Report of American Joint Committee*, p. 28.

5. The wise teacher makes *it* plain that work must be done.
 6. Go to the ant, *thou* sluggard! consider her ways and be wise.—Proverbs vi. 6.
 7. When you have finished this book, bring *it* to me.
 8. What time of day is *it*?
 9. *It* is often said that a rolling stone gathers no moss.
 10. Some men like to lord *it* over their inferiors.
 11. 'Twas now the merry hour of noon.

SCOTT, *Lay of the Last Minstrel.*

12. I will now show *thee* who *it* was that deluded thee.—BUNYAN, *Pilgrim's Progress.*

13. But *it* was not fated that I should sleep that night.—CHARLOTTE BRONTË, *Jane Eyre.*

14. I will fight *it* out on this line if *it* takes all summer.—GENERAL GRANT.

15. Roll on, *thou* deep and dark blue Ocean, roll!
 Ten thousand fleets sweep over *thee* in vain.

BYRON, *Ocean.*

16. He thinks *it* right to see the best in everyone.

17. In these far climes, *it* was my lot
 To meet the wondrous Michael Scott.

SCOTT, *Lay of the Last Minstrel.*

18. *It* was the winter wild,
 While the heaven-born child
 All meanly wrapped in the rude manger lies.

MILTON, *Hymn on the Morning of Christ's Nativity.*

19. Come and trip *it* as you go,
 On the light fantastic toe.

MILTON, *L'Allegro.*

20. There was nothing for *it* but to return.

21. The officer thought *it* unfair that he should be passed over in this way.

22. And now there came both mist and snow,
 And *it* grew wondrous cold.

COLERIDGE, *The Ancient Mariner.*

23. *It* was not till the year 1628, that I was put to learn my Latin declensions.—EVELYN, *Diary.*

81. COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS have the following forms :

Sing.: myself, thyself, ourself, yourself, himself, herself, itself.

Plural: ourselves, yourselves, themselves.

These pronouns have three uses :

- i. As substitutes for the simple personal pronouns.

My brother and myself (I) are ready to go.

2. To mark emphasis.

You *yourselves* will suffer for this.
This boy did it *himself*.

In this construction the compound pronoun is in apposition with the substantive it emphasises.

3. As reflexive object of a verb or a preposition.

I awoke one morning and found *myself* famous.—BYRON.
This man was talking to *himself*.

These objects are called reflexive because they represent the same thing as the subject, and the action of the verb is, therefore, reflected back to the subject.

EXERCISE 51

A

Construct sentences illustrating the use of each of the compound personal pronouns, (a) for emphasis, (b) as a reflexive object.

B

In connection with each compound personal pronoun, name its use, and explain its grammatical relation.

1. I myself will be your leader.
2. Dr. Hackney treated these patients himself.
3. Before the Armada, the Spaniards thought themselves masters of the sea.

4. This child I to myself will take.
WORDSWORTH, *Three Years She Grew*.

5. Myself will to my darling be
Both Law and Impulse.
WORDSWORTH, *Three Years She Grew*.

6. Let me answer this question myself.
7. It is as least certain that the greatest poets are those who have allowed themselves the fewest of such liberties.—FROUDE, .

8. Henceforth I'll bear
Affliction till it do cry out itself
“Enough, enough.”
SHAKESPEARE, *King Lear*.

9. Ourselves will mingle with society
And play the humble host.
SHAKESPEARE, *Macbeth*.

10. As soon as Gregory was himself made Pope, he did this work, sending other preachers to England, but himself by his prayers assisting the preaching.—BEDE, *Ecclesiastical History*.

11. But swift as dreams, myself I found
Within the Pilot's boat.

COLERIDGE, *The Ancient Mariner*.

12. What they win by their spinning,
This they must spend on the rent of their houses,
Ay, and themselves suffer with hunger.

LANGLAND, *Piers Plowman*.

13. While e'en the peasant boasts these rights to scan,
And learns to venerate himself as man.

GOLDSMITH, *The Traveller*.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

82. The following words are called POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS, because they denote possession.

mine	yours (thine)	his, hers, its
ours	yours	theirs

These words, all of which are derived directly from the Old English personal and demonstrative pronouns, are used both as adjectives, and as pronouns. When they modify substantives, they are adjectives ; when they do not modify substantives, they are pronouns.

ADJECTIVES :

This book is *mine*, that is *yours*.
His friends are *ours* also.

PRONOUNS :

I have their letter and *yours*.
There are many good horses, but *his* is the best.
Of all the schools in town *ours* is the largest.

The words *my*, *our*, *your*, (*thy*) and *their* are always used as adjectives, never as pronouns.

Notice the peculiar use of the word *own* in the following sentence :

He came unto *his own*, and *his own* received him not.

The two words *his own* form an emphatic possessive pronoun phrase. *My own*, *our own*, *your own*, etc., are also used adjectivally.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

83. The DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS point out.

The chief demonstratives are :

Sing. : this, that.

Plur. : these those.

1. *This* is mine, *that* is yours.

2. *These* are cheap, *those* are dear.

3. I have my own books, and *those* of my friends.

4. To make a happy fireside clime

To weans and wife,—

That's the true pathos and sublime

Of human life.

BURNS.

When both *this* and *that*, or *these* and *those*, are used, as in sentences 1 and 2, they serve to contrast the nearer thing and the more remote one.

Two other words, *such* and *so*, are sometimes used as demonstrative pronouns.

The teacher told me to study. I shall do *so* (*that*).

Suffer the little children to come unto me, and forbid them not, for of *such* (beings like that) is the Kingdom of God.—Mark x. 14.

To *such* my errand is.

MILTON, *Comus*.

EXERCISE 52

A

1. Construct short sentences containing the words, *my* and *mine*, *our* and *ours*, *your* and *yours*, *her* and *hers*, *their* and *theirs*.

When is the first word of each pair used, and when the second?

2. Construct two sentences, in one of which the word *mine* is a possessive pronoun, and in the other an adjective.

3. *This* book is large; *that* one is small.

What difference between the books is marked by the use of *this* and *that*?

4. The Latin word *demonstro* means *point out*.

Why are *this* and *that* called demonstrative?

B

Classify each italicised word in the following sentences, and explain its grammatical relation in the sentence.

1. *That* which must be done, should be done quickly.

2. What is *yours* is *mine*.
3. "Hast thou much, spend generously!" So says the Book.
LANGLAND, *Piers Plowman*.
4. I am *yours* sincerely, John Smith.
5. Oh! dream of joy! is *this* indeed
The light-house top I see?
COLERIDGE, *The Ancient Mariner*.
6. You see the two groups. *These* are our friends, *those* our enemies.
7. *His* farm is larger than *ours*, but *ours* is nearer town.
8. Let us do *our* work as well.
9. None are so blind as *those* who will not see.
10. I love *such* as love *me*.
11. We must recognise the difference between *mine* and *thine*.
12. The willows and the hazel copses green
Shall now no more be seen,
Fanning *their* joyous leaves to *thy* soft lays.
MILTON, *Lycidas*.
13. We made a short excursion to the country last summer; and *that* is the extent of our travelling this year.
14. What's *yours* is *mine*, what's *mine* is *my own*.
15. Take your ball; I'll keep *my own*.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

84. **The INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS, *who*, *which*, and *what*, are used to ask questions.**

1. *Who* is inflected, and has the following forms:

SING. AND PLUR.

Nom.	<i>who</i>
Acc.-dat.	<i>whom</i>
Gen.	<i>whose</i>

Who has come? *Who* have come? *Whose* book have you? *Whom* did he see? To *whom* did they speak?

2. *Which* and *what* are not declined. *Which* is either singular or plural in meaning; *what* is always singular.

Which of the boys has (have) come?

Which of the boys did you see? *Which* of the sleighs do you want?

What has startled you? *What* have you seen?

3. As will be seen from the sentences above, *who* is used of persons, *which* of persons or things, and *what* of things only.

4. *What* is sometimes used adverbially.

What (how) mighty contests rise from trivial things!
POPE.

What (how) shall it profit a man, if he gain the whole world, and lose his own soul?—Mark viii. 36.

5. *What* is used frequently as an interjection.

What! did he revile his own friends?

6. Interrogative pronouns are used in both principal and subordinate clauses.

1. *Who* has come?
2. Do you know *who* has come?
3. *What* has he done?
4. They ask *what* he has done.

The clauses *who has come* in sentence 2, and *what he has done* in sentence 4, are called subordinate questions.

EXERCISE 53

Explain the grammatical relation of each italicised pronoun in the following sentences:

1. *Which* of your boys will do this for me?
2. *Whose* house is on fire?
3. Alas! *what* has he done now?
4. *Who* did he say was the leader?
5. *Which* of you have done this?
6. *What!* has this thing appear'd again to-night?
SHAKESPEARE, *Hamlet*.
7. Of *whom* is he speaking?
8. *What* can all that green stuff be?
9. To *whom* did you send the money?
10. They asked *who* had helped us.
11. I know *who* has sent this present.
12. Did you hear *whom* Parliament has chosen?

EXERCISE 54

Supply either *who* or *whom* in each of the following sentences. Give a reason in each case.

1. —— sent the letter?
2. —— have we offended?
3. —— do you think has come?
4. —— do you consider best fitted for the position?
5. —— do you believe the man to be?
6. —— do you think will be chosen?
7. —— did you say was the president?
8. —— do you intend to visit in Montreal?

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

85. The words commonly used as **RELATIVE PRONOUNS** are :

who, which, what, that.

1. They are called relative pronouns, because each has two functions :

(a) As a pronoun it replaces a noun.

(b) By referring, or relating back, to some word in a preceding clause, it shows the relation between two clauses.

The word to which the relative pronoun refers back is called its **antecedent**.

This is the ship *that* brought my father.

Here are the men *who* will help us.

Your horse, *which* ran away, has been caught.

The pronoun *that* refers back to the noun *ship*, its antecedent; *who* refers back to *men*, and *which* to *horse*.

The antecedent of *which* may be the idea contained in a preceding clause, and not a single word.

They have refused all my offers, *which* annoys me much.

2. *What*, as a relative pronoun, is equal to *that which*.

What (*that which*) he does is important.

The word *what* in this sentence is equivalent, therefore, to a relative pronoun and its antecedent. *Who* is occasionally used in the same way.

Who (he who) steals my purse, steals trash.

SHAKESPEARE, *Othello*.

What and *who*, when used in this way, are called **indefinite relatives**.

3. *What*, *which*, and *that*, when used as relatives, are uninflected, but *who* is declined as follows :

SING AND PL.

Nom.	who
Acc.-dat.	whom
Gen.	whose

4. *Who* is used of persons only; *which* is used of

things, or persons taken collectively ; *that* is used of persons or things ; *what* is used of things only.

1. My friends who ——
2. This box which ——
3. This mob, which ——
4. The boy that ——
5. The horse that ——

5. *But* and *as* are occasionally used as negative relative pronouns.

There is no man present *but* has heard this report.
(There is no man present *that* has *not* heard this report.)

Such goods *as* he has, will do.
(Those goods *which* he has, will do.)

This is the same picture *as* (which) you saw.
That is a falsehood, *as* you know.

In the last sentence the antecedent of *as* is the idea contained in the principal clause.

6. **Compound indefinite relative pronouns** are formed by adding *-ever*, or *-so* or *-soever* to *who*, *which*, and *what*.

Whosoever a man soweth, that shall he also reap.—
Galatians vi. 7.

Whatever is worth doing at all, is worth doing well.—
CHESTERFIELD.

Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed.—Genesis ix. 6.

7. The relative pronoun is of the same person and number as its antecedent.

I, *who* am your friend, will assist you.

That the word *who* is singular and of the first person, is shown by the person and number of the verb *am*.

8. The case of a relative pronoun is determined by its use in its own clause.

The man *who* helped you is } Nom., subj. of *helped*.
my father.

The man *whom* you saw is } Acc., obj. of *saw*.
my father.

9. It is sometimes a little difficult to distinguish between the use of *what* as an interrogative pronoun in a subordinate question, and the use of the same word as an indefinite relative.

<i>What</i> has he done ?	Interrogative.
I ask <i>what</i> he has done }	Interrogative in subordinate
I know <i>what</i> he has done }	questions.
I value <i>what</i> he has done	Indefinite relative.

In the last sentence only, *what* is equivalent to *that which*.

EXERCISE 55

1. Of what parts of speech do relative pronouns perform the functions ? (Sect. 85, 1.)

2. Construct sentences in which *as* is used as a relative pronoun.

What two words are usually followed by this pronoun ? (Sect. 85, 5.)

EXERCISE 56

Select each relative pronoun in the following sentences. Show clearly its use in its own clause, and also its relative value.

A

1. The house that we built last summer is for sale.
2. Our soldiers, who won glory in France, have come home.
3. What you say is true.
4. This was an occupation of which she was fond.
5. We appreciate what you did.
6. This is the little girl about whom I wrote to you.
7. I have done the same exercise as you.
8. What had just passed was fresh in my mind.
9. There was no one in the room but saw what happened.
10. Get advice about these plants from your neighbour, whose garden is in such good order.

B

1. What is done cannot be undone.—SHAKESPEARE,
Macbeth.

2. On the house-tops was no woman
 But spat towards him and hissed,
No child but screamed out curses,
 And shook its little fist.

MACAULAY, *Horatius*.

3. In yonder village there dwells a gentleman whose name is Legality, that has skill to help men off with such burdens as thine are from their shoulders.—BUNYAN, *The Pilgrim's Progress*.

4. His beard, which he wore a little peaked, was of a brownish colour.—EVELYN, *Diary*.

5. Cut off the heads of too-fast-growing sprays
That look too lofty in our commonwealth.
SHAKESPEARE, *King Richard II.*
6. I'll tell everybody what you are, and not what you have done.
7. Who was the thane lives yet.—SHAKESPEARE, *Macbeth*.
8. There is not one of the company but speaks of him as a well-bred, fine gentleman.—STEELE, *The Spectator*.
9. Such morals as play
Through life's more cultured walks, and charm the way.
GOLDSMITH, *The Traveller*.
10. I cleared a space on the glass through which I might look out.
11. We sailed by several Spanish forts, out of one of which came a Don on board us, to whom I showed my Spanish pass, which he signed.—EVELYN, *Diary*.
12. This was the first time that my parents had seen all their children together in prosperity.—PEPYS' *Diary*.
13. The long-remember'd beggar was his guest,
Whose beard descending swept his aged breast.
GOLDSMITH, *The Deserted Village*.
14. This miry slough is such a place as cannot be mended.—BUNYAN, *The Pilgrim's Progress*.

EXERCISE 57

Tell which of the italicised forms is correct, and give the reason in each case.

1. One of the men that *works* (*work*) in our factory made it.
2. You are the only one of the applicants that *has* (*have*) the necessary qualification.
3. Captain Martin is the first of these officers that *has* (*have*) received the Military Cross.
4. Art thou that Egyptian which *made* (*madest*) the uproar?
5. The last of all the bards is he
Who *sings* (*sing*) of Border chivalry.
6. He is the only one of these boys that *has* (*have*) the work ready.
7. He was one of the fastest runners who *has* (*have*) ever come to Canada.
8. Am I the one who *am* (*is*) to be blamed for this?
9. He was one of those unfortunate individuals who *does* (*do*) not take advice.

EXERCISE 58

Supply the proper form, "who," or "whom," in each of these sentences. Give reasons.

1. He was a man —— I knew could be trusted.
2. He has a brother —— I expect is with him.

3. John is the one — he is likely to choose.
4. There was a boy in the class — I learned would pass the house.
5. I don't know — we are going to see.
6. He feels contempt for those — he imagines are poor.
7. We met a man — we all thought to be your brother.
8. Speculation was rife as to — would be the lady of his choice.
9. This we supposed to be the guide — we had been given to understand we should find waiting for us.
10. Why did you recommend one — you confess you did not think likely to succeed.

EXERCISE 59

Classify the italicised pronouns in the following sentences as interrogative or relative, and give a reason in each case. Name the case, and explain the relation, of each of the italicised words.

1. This is the house in *which* we live.
2. He told us *what* you were saying.
3. I shall find out *who* he is.
4. Do not listen to *what* he says.
5. That is the city to *which* he is going.
6. *Whoever* wishes may come.
7. These are the people about *whom* I spoke.
8. I asked about *what* he had done.
9. I shall do *whatever* you wish.
10. I cannot discover *whom* they blamed.
11. I ask *who* came with them.
12. The general inquired *what* the rebels wanted.
13. I know *which* of the books will please you.
14. We all admire *what* this man has accomplished.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

86. **INDEFINITE PRONOUNS** point out objects, but do so much less clearly than demonstratives.

We had many books. *Some* are missing.

They want fifteen suits, but I cannot give them *any*.

My brother and I like *each other*.

Each of the italicised pronouns points out more or less indefinitely an object or objects. *Some*, for instance, leaves us quite in doubt as to which particular books, and how many books, are missing.

1. The following words are used as indefinite pronouns :

each	many	none	more	certain
either	few	aught	most	such
neither	all	naught	several	other
some	both	enough	sundry	
any	one	much	divers	

It should be remembered, however, that most of these words are used also as adjectives, and that some of them are used as nouns.

All citizens are expected to do their duty. (Adjective.)
 We have millions of citizens. *All* of them will do their duty. (Pronoun.)
 The poor widow gave her *all*. (Noun.)

2. A few indefinite pronouns are inflected .

other, *plur.* others; the other, *gen.* the other's, *plur.* the others, *gen. plur.* the others'; another, *gen.* another's; one, *gen.* one's, *plur.* the ones.

3. Compound Indefinites.

(a) Compound indefinite pronouns are formed by adding to *some*, *any*, *every*, and *no*, the words, *one*, *thing*, and *body* :

someone, something, somebody, etc.

(b) *Each other* and *one another*, which are practically compounds although written as phrases, are called **reciprocal**, because they indicate mutual or reciprocal relations between things.

These two men admired *each other*.

The soldiers helped *one another*.

4. One indefinite pronoun, *the same*, is called **identifying**, because it denotes the person or thing just mentioned.

There was a man sent from God, whose name was John ; *the same* came for a witness.—John i. 6, 7.

5. Certain words or phrases commonly used with other functions are sometimes used as indefinite pronouns : *you*, *they*, *who*, *what*, *it*, *a man*, *a body*, *a fellow*, *people*.

They say a revolution has broken out.

I'll tell you *what* ; *people* will say you are foolish.

Do you know who's *who* in this town ?

EXERCISE 60

Parse the italicised words in these sentences:

1. Love *one another*.
2. *One* would think that he had studied Greek.
3. *None* of the men selected was found fit for this work.
4. *They* say that the crops in Saskatchewan are good.
5. *Some* were on time; *others* were late.
6. What is a *man* to do when he can't get work?
7. Gin (if) *a body* meet *a body*,
 Coming through the rye.
8. We found *nobody* at home.
9. *Few*, few shall part, where *many* meet.
10. Bear ye *one another's* burdens.
11. There was *nothing* so very remarkable in that.
12. She did not like to drop the jar for fear of killing *somebody* underneath.—CARROLL, *Alice in Wonderland*.
13. Did you ever hear of such a strange idea as to dye *one's* hair blue?
14. *Nothing* succeeds like success.
15. "It is *naught*, it is *naught*," says the buyer.—Proverbs.
16. *Each* is certain that the *other* is wrong.
17. *All's* well that ends well.—HEYWOOD.

PARSING OF PRONOUNS

87. As with nouns, the parsing of pronouns should be made very simple. It is usually quite sufficient to tell to which class the pronoun belongs, and to give its number, case, and relation in the sentence. (See page 268.)

That boy, who told us the story, has departed.
Many of our friends have come.

who, relative pron., sing., nom., subj. of *told*, antecedent *boy*.

us, person. pron., plur., dat., indir. obj. of *told*.
many, indef. pron., plur., nom. subj. of *have come*.

EXERCISE 61

A

Parse the italicised pronouns in the following sentences :

1. Perhaps their loves, or else their sheep,
Was *all that* did their silly thoughts so busy keep.
MILTON, *Hymn on the Morning of Christ's Nativity*.

2. Old Meg *she* was a gypsy,
And lived upon the moors :
Her bed *it* was the brown heath turf,
And her house was out of doors.
- KEATS, *Meg Merrilies.*
- ✓ 3. She was the first woman with *whom* I was in love. *It*
dropped out of my head imperceptibly ; but she and *I* shall
always have a kindness for *each other*.—BOSWELL, *Life of*
Dr. Johnson.
4. I look upon *myself* as a good-humoured fellow.—
BOSWELL, *Life of Dr. Johnson.*
- ✓ 5. Accursed be that tongue *that* tells me so.
SHAKESPEARE, *Macbeth.*
6. *Thou* hast her, France ! let *her* be thine, for *we*
Have no such daughter, nor shall ever see
That face of *hers* again.
- SHAKESPEARE, *King Lear.*
7. Childe Harold basked *him* in the noonday sun.
BYRON, *Childe Harold.*

B

1. Cold is the heart, fair Greece ! *that* looks on *thee*,
Nor feels as lovers o'er the dust they loved.
BYRON, *Childe Harold.*
2. *It* so happened that the king passed through the village
in disguise and asked what news was stirring. "Master Brock,"
said the people, "has a little son *who* they say is a luck's-child;
when *he* is fourteen years old, *he* is to marry the king's
daughter." This did not please the king, so he went to Master
Brock and asked *him* to sell *him* his son.—GRIMM'S *Fairy Tales.*
3. Was *it* so late, friend, ere you went to bed,
That you do lie so late ?
THOMAS *Thunself*
SHAKESPEARE, *Macbeth.*
4. Things *that* love night,
Love not such nights *as* these.
SHAKESPEARE, *King Lear.*
5. *Naught* men could do, have I left undone :
And you see my harvest, *what* I reap
This very day, now a year is run.
R. BROWNING, *The Patriot.*
6. And hard *it* were for bard to speak
The changeful hue of Margaret's cheek.
SCOTT, *Lay of the Last Minstrel.*
7. Then turn to-night, and freely share
Whate'er my cell bestows.
GOLDSMITH, *The Hermit.*

8. Her love was sought, I do aver,
By twenty beaux and more;
The King *himself* has follow'd her—
When she has walk'd before.
GOLDSMITH, *An Elegy on the Glory of her Sex,*
Mrs. Mary Blaize.
9. While *both* contend
To win her grace, *whom* all commend.
MILTON, *L'Allegro.*
10. But *who* can paint the deep serene—
The holy stillness of thy mien—
The calm *that's* in thy face,
Which makes *us* feel, despite of strife,
And all the turmoil of our life—
Earth is a holy place ?
ALEXANDER M'LACHLAN, *Indian Summer.*

CHAPTER IV

THE ADJECTIVE

88. An **ADJECTIVE** is a word that modifies a substantive.

89. Adjectives are classified as **descriptive** and **limiting**.

DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES

90. A **DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVE** expresses the kind or condition of a thing spoken of, as in *good man*, *sick man*. The adjective *good* here tells the kind of man he is, while *sick* describes his condition. By far the larger number of adjectives belong to this class.

91. **COMPARISON.** Most descriptive adjectives are inflected to show comparison. Thus the adjective *strong* has three forms :

George is strong.

John is stronger than George.

Thomas is the strongest of the three.

1. **The positive degree** of the adjective is its simplest form.

The strong boy. The brave soldier. The fast horse. The noble man.

2. **The comparative degree** of the adjective, usually formed by adding *-er* to the positive, is the form used in comparing two things, or groups of things.

This boy is stronger than that one.

George is braver than Thomas or John.

Men are taller than women.

3. **The superlative degree** of the adjective, usually formed by adding *-est* to the positive, is the form used

to show that, out of a number of things, one possesses a certain quality in a greater degree than any of the rest.

George is the *strongest* of the boys.

The soldier is the *bravest* of the company.

92. USE OF COMPARATIVE AND SUPERLATIVE DEGREES.

The following sentences represent incorrect uses that should be avoided.

1. "She is the *largest* of the two girls." *Larger* should be employed in this sentence, since the superlative is used only when more than two things, or groups of things, are compared :

2. "The Pacific is *larger* than any ocean in the world." This sentence is illogical, since the Pacific is an ocean. The sentence should be: "The Pacific is larger than any other ocean."

3. "Lake Superior is the largest of the other lakes of the world." This sentence is also illogical. The word *other* should be omitted.

93. METHODS OF COMPARISON.

1. **By inflection**, by the addition of *-er* and *-est* to the positive :

short, shorter, shortest ; fit, fitter, fittest.

In some adjectives a change of spelling takes place when *-er* and *-est* are added.

(a) Adjectives ending in silent *e* drop this letter : wise, wiser, wisest ; tame, tamer, tamest.

(b) Most adjectives ending in *y* change that letter to *i* :

mossy, mossier, mossiest.

(c) Adjectives ending in a consonant after a short vowel double this consonant :

fit, fitter, fittest ; slim, slimmer, slimmest.

2. Phrasal comparison.

(a) By means of the adverbs *more* and *most* : beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful.

(b) By means of the adverbs *less* and *least* : interesting, less interesting, least interesting.

Euphony, or pleasantness of sound, largely determines which method is employed in comparing a particular adjective. Most short adjectives are inflected. With many of the longer adjectives we use the phrasal comparison.

94. THE ABSOLUTE SUPERLATIVE. The superlative form is frequently used when no comparison is intended.

My dearest mother is here.
He is a man of the greatest honour.

We mean that my mother is very dear and that he is a man of very great honour.

Such superlatives are called **absolute**. The ordinary superlative is **relative**.

95. IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

(a) The following adjectives are compared irregularly:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
good	better	best
well (in health)	better	
bad	worse (worser)	worst
ill		
little	less (lesser)	least
much	more	most
many		
old	older (elder)	oldest (eldest)
late	{ later latter	{ latest last
nigh	nigher	{ nighest next
far	farther	farthest

Worser and *lesser* are double comparatives, now archaic. *Elder* and *eldest* are used of members of the same family or group. *Later* and *latest* are used to express time; *latter* and *last* denote order. *Next*, the older superlative of *nigh*, is now used only absolutely.

My brother lives in the *next* street.

(b) A number of superlatives end in *-most*. In some cases the other degrees are missing.

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
fore	{ former further	foremost, first
hind	hinder	{ furthest, furthermost
in (adverb)	inner	hindermost
out (adverb)	{ outer (utter)	inmost, innermost
up (adverb)	upper	outmost, outermost
—	nether	utmost, uttermost
—	under	uppermost
top	—	nethermost
north	—	undermost
northern	more northern	hithermost
south	—	topmost
southern	more southern	northmost
eastern	more eastern	northernmost
western	more western	southmost
		southernmost
		easternmost
		westernmost

(c) A few adjectives which are comparative in meaning and in form, cannot now be used in the comparative construction with *than*:

senior, superior (Latin comparatives), elder, former, inner.

This partner is *older than* the other.

Of the two partners, this one is *senior*.

96. **SOME ADJECTIVES NOT COMPARED.** Owing to their meaning, some descriptive adjectives cannot be compared unless used in a limited sense. The following are examples:

straight, level, round, perpendicular, monthly, English.

If a stick is really straight, it cannot be straighter; but we often use *straight* in the sense of *more or less straight*, and we can then say:

This stick is straighter (*more nearly straight*) than that.

EXERCISE 62

Write the comparatives and superlatives of the following adjectives:

able	desirous	hot	noble	silly
afraid	dry	indifferent	old	simple
alert	eager	infinite	perfect	tall
bad	extinct	late	pleasant	tender
bitter	far	lovely	prosperous	wild
cruel	good	much	sad	witty

EXERCISE 63

Write the other degrees of the following adjectives :

better	least
elder	more
evil	oldest
fairer	outer
farther	upmost
hindmost	worst

LIMITING ADJECTIVES¹

97. ARTICLES. There are two :

1. **The Indefinite Article, *a* or *an*.** It is called indefinite because it is used to indicate any one of a class of things.

Give me a pencil. You have an orange.

This article is derived from the O.E. numeral *ān* (*one*), and retains some of the force of the numeral, especially in such expressions as : *twenty-five cents a pound*, *two dollars a yard*, where *a* is equivalent to *one* or *each*.

A is used before a word beginning with a consonant sound.

A whistle, a youth, a one, a university.

An is used before a word beginning with a vowel sound ; and most people use it also before a word beginning with an aspirate *h*, when the word is accented on the second syllable, because in such a case the *h* is not fully sounded.

An apple, an edition, an hotel, an historical personage.

2. **The Definite Article, *the*,** is derived from the Old English demonstrative adjective, and retains some of its demonstrative force. It points out one or more particular things, or a whole class of things.

The apple you want is here. (That apple which you want, etc.)

The King is dead (a particular king).

The horse is a useful animal. (The horse = the whole class, horses.)

¹ The limiting adjective limits the idea conveyed by the substantive, as in *this girl*, or *what book*; or it intimates absence of limitation, as in *any girl*. (*American Report*, p. 16.)

With two or more connected nouns or adjectives the article should be repeated whenever it is intended to designate more than one thing or class.

The secretary and treasurer is here (one person).

The secretary and the treasurer are here (two persons).

The red white and blue flags (flags of one kind)

The red, the white, and the blue flags (flags of three kinds).

98. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES. These are so called because they are all derived from pronouns, and they are classified very much as the pronouns are, into possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, etc.

99. POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES: *my, mine; our, ours; thy, thine; your, yours; his, her, hers, its; their, theirs.* These adjectives are derived from the possessive cases of the Old English personal and demonstrative pronouns. For the Old English pronouns see Sect. 232.

1. The adjectives *my, thy, her, its, our, your, and their* are used when a substantive follows. *Mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs* are now used only in the predicate. *His* is used in both ways.

My book, his pen, our pencils, their desks.

This book is mine. That pen is his. The pencils are ours.

2. In older English, both *mine* and *thine* were used when a substantive followed, especially when the latter began with a vowel sound.

I will wash mine hands in innocency ; so will I compass thine altar, O Lord.—Psalms xxvi. 6.

3. The forms *mine, thine, his, hers, its, ours, yours, and theirs* are used as pronouns also.

Here are your book and mine.

They took their boat and ours.

4. The word *own* (an old past particle) is used along with the possessive adjectives to form **emphatic possessive adjective phrases.**

Give us our own hats.

These balls and bats are our own.

When not used to modify substantives, these phrases are pronominal.

I used my money, and he used *his own*.

EXERCISE 64

Classify the possessive words in the following sentences, and explain the syntax of each.

1. My skates are not with yours.
2. Where is your notebook? I forgot to bring mine.
3. Mr. Woodley drove his own horse to town.
4. This cottage is ours. We spend our summers in it.
5. We do not borrow our neighbour's spade, for we have our own.
6. We hope that those boys do their own work.
7. We shall carry our baskets, and send yours by the stage.
8. From your history you have learned of Alfred the Great.
9. Some of you may think you owe your greatness to yourselves, but Alfred owed part of his to his teacher.
10. As you grow older, you may come to the same opinion in regard to yours.
11. But you will be thinking, "Why doesn't he talk of Alfred's greatness, instead of moralising about ours?"
12. Perhaps you have heard your father say, "If it rains on St. Swithin's day, there will be forty wet days to follow."
13. Mine used to repeat to us this old saying.
14. Swithin was a real person, and it was his privilege to be Alfred's tutor.
15. Alfred's talents were developed by his teacher's training, and so also are yours.

EXERCISE 65

Fill each blank in the following sentences with the proper possessive adjective.

1. Each one of you should have — own book.
2. Any one of these farmers will lend you — horse.
3. England expects every one to do — duty.
4. One has to pick — steps when going through this swamp.
5. Neither Mary nor Dorothy has eaten — breakfast.
6. Either of us will exchange — house for a farm.
7. All the shareholders expressed — approval.
8. There was no one but gave — help.
9. Every one has expressed — opinion.
10. Everybody thinks — own work to be important.
11. Each pupil does — parsing in his own way.
12. You don't look like a man who would leave — family alone.
14. Each of the women had — knitting.
15. Many a knight gained — spurs in this battle.
16. Either Mr. Smith or Mr. Brown will sell — farm.
17. No one has handed in — written work.

100. **DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES:** *this, these; that, those; yon, yonder.* They are called demonstrative because they point out.

1. The chief demonstratives are :

Sing. :	this	that
Pl. :	these	those

This school has four rooms, that one has five.

These boys like football, those boys prefer baseball.

When *this* and *that*, or *these* and *those*, are used, as in these sentences, they contrast the nearer thing with the more remote.

2. *Yon* and *yonder* point out remote things.

Yon tower is very tall.

3. *So* and *such* are used with demonstrative force in such sentences as :

You are lucky, and so am I.

Such boys as you should be punished.

101. **INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES:** *which* and *what*.

1. Both are used to ask questions. Both are used of either persons or things.

Which friend is coming ?

Which horse do you want ?

What boys did you see ?

What book do you want ?

2. *What* is sometimes used as an adverb.

What a brave man he is ! (How brave a man he is !)

102. **RELATIVE ADJECTIVES:** *which, what, whichever, whatever.* Like the relative pronouns, these words, when used as adjectives, show the relations between clauses. *Which* is sometimes used with a definite antecedent.

Let him read *what* books he likes (*those books which*).

Use *whatever* powers you may have (*those powers which*).

He spoke of a book, *which* book he had with him.

103. **INDEFINITE ADJECTIVES.** Most of the indefinite pronouns are used also as adjectives. *None* is

always a pronoun. *Every* is always an adjective. (See list of indefinite pronouns, section 86.)

Many citizens do *much* work for the city.

Certain men have had *enough* experience.

Every boy should acquire *some* kind of skill.

This is the *very*¹ man I want. These are the *same* people you saw.

EXERCISE 66

Classify the adjectives in the following sentences, and explain the syntax of each.

1. What boy in the class has any information to give about "Rolf the Ganger"?
2. The name of this sea-rover is not very familiar to us.
3. Which pupil can tell us why a certain part of France is called Normandy?
4. Students of such intelligence will ask what reason is given for this fact.
5. If this be so, you will read these sentences.
6. The Danes, or Northmen, those fierce enemies of Alfred, had been driven from the shores of England by the great king and his son.
7. Being still eager to gain whatever booty they could, many of them sailed south.
8. The chief of their band was Rolf the Ganger.
9. Some girl will be saying to herself, "What new word is this?"
10. Such was his stature that when he rode on his horse his feet touched the ground on each side; this forced him to "gang" or "go on foot."
11. If there are any Lowland Scotch in the class, they should recognise this word.
12. We shall make some "observations," as the teacher of science would say, from Rolf's method of riding.
13. In the first place, the horses that he rode were about as large as a Shetland pony.
14. So each reader can imagine Rolf's long legs touching the ground as he bestrode one of these tiny animals.
15. Which girl can make the other observation?
16. As we do not hear your answer, every voice must be still while we make whatever attempt we can to explain it.
17. Our opinion is that Rolf's language was not unlike that spoken in some parts of Scotland.
18. The "Goer," although he did not go there on horseback, attacked the northern coast of France.
19. A certain French king, known as Charles the Simple,

¹ *Very* is called an intensifying adjective, and *same* an identifying adjective, by the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature.

was forced to yield him some territory, which territory was called Normandy after these Northmen.

20. Rolf was then summoned to Paris, and was bidden to kneel and kiss this king's foot in token of loyalty.

21. Imagine what joy this command brought to the heart of the proud warrior!

22. Approaching the throne, before the eyes of every courtier he seized the toes of Simple Charles and threw him backwards, chair and all.—ARNOLD-FORSTER, *History of England* (adapted).

23. Those hard workers who have finished this exercise may "gang awa' hame."

104. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES. The numeral adjectives are so called because they express number definitely. They are divided into two classes, cardinals and ordinals.

1. **The Cardinals** (one, two, three, etc.) answer the question, "How many?"

One boy. Twenty girls. A hundred men.

Ten thousand four hundred and fifty soldiers.

The smaller numbers are represented by single words, the larger ones by phrases, which are treated as single parts of speech.

The cardinals may be used also as nouns.

Forty of the boys were here.

The spectators came by tens and twenties.

Hundreds of women and thousands of men were there.

2. **The Ordinals** (first, second, third, etc.) denote position or order in a series.

The first boy. The twelfth girl. The one hundred and first man.

The two thousand four hundred and fiftieth soldier.

As with the cardinals, an ordinal may be a word, or a phrase which is treated as a single part of speech.

Most of the ordinals are derived from the cardinals by the addition of *-th*, which, in the case of phrases, is added to the last word. *First, second, and third* are exceptions.

All the ordinals except *first* and *second* are used as nouns to name the fractions.

*A third of the class. Four fifths of the money.
Five hundredths of the sum.*

3. Derived from the cardinals are the adjectives *two-*

fold, threefold, etc., which, together with the adjectives *simple, double, triple, quadruple*, are sometimes called **Multiplicatives**.

There is a *twofold (double)* benefit in this plan.

Twofold, threefold, etc., are also commonly used as adverbs.

There has been a *fourfold* increase in value. (Adjective.)
This house has increased *fourfold* in value. (Adverb.)

EXERCISE 67

Classify the adjectives in the following extract, and explain the syntax of each.

AN OLD ENGLISH GAME

I must tell you how the noble old game of back-sword is played. The weapon is a good stout ash stick with a large basket handle, heavier and somewhat shorter than a common single-stick. Each player is called an "Old Gamester"—why, I can't tell you,—and his object is simply to break his opponent's head; for the moment that blood runs an inch anywhere above the eyebrow, the old gamester to whom it belongs is beaten, and has to stop. A very slight blow with the sticks will fetch blood, so that it is by no means a punishing pastime, if the men don't play savagely at the bodies and arms of their adversaries. Each old gamester going into action takes off his hat and coat, and arms himself with a stick; he then loops the fingers of his left hand in a handkerchief or strap, which he fastens round his left leg, measuring the length, so that when he draws it tight with his left elbow in the air, that elbow shall reach as high as his crown. There you see, so long as he keeps his left elbow up, regardless of blows, he has a perfect guard for that side of his head. Then he advances his right hand above and in front of his head, holding his stick across, so that its point projects an inch or two over his left elbow; and thus he has his whole head completely guarded, while his competitor has his protected in the same way. They stand some three feet apart, often nearer, and feint and strike and return at one another's heads until one cries "hold" or blood flows.—T. HUGHES, *Tom Brown's School Days*.

SYNTAX OF THE ADJECTIVE

105. The adjective may stand in three different relations to the substantive which it modifies.

i. **The PREDICATE ADJECTIVE.** When an adjective is in the predicate of the sentence, and is brought

by means of the verb into relation with either the subject substantive, or the direct object, it is called **Predicate**.

This boy is *happy* and *careless* all day long.
Good health makes this boy *happy* and *careless*.
We consider this boy *happy* and *careless*.¹

Sometimes a predicate adjective seems to modify both the verb and the subject substantive.

The sun shines *bright*. The boy came *running*.

Bright describes both the sun and the shining. Such an adjective is called **Adverbial Predicate**.

2. The ADHERENT ADJECTIVE. When an adjective is placed near, and is closely connected with, the substantive it modifies, but is not brought into relation with the substantive by means of a verb, it is called **Adherent**.

This happy, careless boy plays all day long.

Each of the italicised adjectives is closely connected with *boy*, and is placed near it, but is not brought into relation with the noun *boy* by means of a verb.

The adherent adjective usually precedes the substantive, but occasionally follows it in poetry.

This is the forest *primeval*.—LONGFELLOW, *Evangeline*.

3. The APPPOSITIVE ADJECTIVE. In the sentence,

This boy, happy and careless, plays all day long.

the adjectives *happy* and *careless* modify the noun *boy*, but we feel that they are less closely connected with the noun than are the same adjectives in sub-section 2 above. This looseness of connection is indicated by the way we punctuate the sentence and read it aloud. The relation of the adjectives here is similar to that of the noun in apposition, and so is called **Appositive**.

¹ The distinctions indicated by the old terms, objective predicate, predicate objective, and factitive objective predicate, are being abandoned as quite useless. See p. 9 of the *Report of the English Joint Committee on the Terminology of Grammar*.

The appositive adjective usually follows the noun, but occasionally precedes.

Young, beautiful, and clever, the maiden attracted everybody.

EXERCISE 68

Classify the adjectives in the following sentences; explain the syntax of each, and name its relation to the word it modifies.

A

1. We have decided to insert some sentences describing the Anglo-Saxons.
2. When you are asked to learn dates, do you think the task difficult?
3. Perhaps it will be easier to remember that they conquered Britain after the Romans had left the island unprotected.
4. Of course the teacher has made it clear that they came from Germany.
5. The earliest of these invaders were not interested in writing books.
6. But Tacitus, a Roman writer, has made us acquainted with these far-away grandparents.
7. Here is his description of them, "A fine, unmixed and independent race, unlike any other people, with stern blue eyes, ruddy hair, of large and robust frames."
8. Do you consider your friend's hair "ruddy"?
9. Tacitus also says, "Fierce and cruel in war, they were content, when the war was over, to lay aside the sword and spear and return to their farms."
10. They were free men, living in little villages scattered throughout a great, uninhabited country.
11. The head of each family had a plot of land. That was his own.
12. They made the pasture-land common to all.
13. Is it reasonable to suppose that this custom tells us why we still call an unfenced piece of ground a "common"?
14. The headmen of the village were the "Eldermen."
15. It does not require much effort to change "Eldermen" to "Aldermen."
16. When they set out to attack other tribes, they were led by chiefs who had made themselves famous in war.
17. They spoke a language similar to "Low German."
18. Many of the words of Low German can be understood from our knowledge of English.

B

- to be part. past. p.p. / p.p. /
part. appositive*
1. He went mad.
 2. They danced themselves tired.
 3. He walked home, worn out with his exertions.

4. When Isaac returns successful, I will see that he pays thee the money.
5. Heaven bring him safe back to shore!
6. He was struck dumb with astonishment.
7. His character rendered him odious.
8. The wine tastes sour.
9. He talked himself hoarse.
10. Her friends thought her beautiful.
11. The weather turned very hot in June.
12. We went along, happy in our work.
13. Your brother looks much better.
14. The furrow followed free.—COLERIDGE, *The Ancient Mariner.*
15. Disconcerted by this, Mr. Ogilvie took a new position, where, I suppose, he thought himself perfectly safe.—BOSWELL, *Life of Johnson.*
16. Thou mayst convey thy family to this village, where there are houses now standing empty, one of which thou mayst have at reasonable rates; provision is there both cheap and good; and what will make thy life more happy is the fact that thou shalt live by honest neighbours.—BUNYAN, *Pilgrim's Progress.*
17. This Legality is not able to set thee free from thy burden.
- BUNYAN, *Pilgrim's Progress.*
18. The morning found the one fast asleep, the other broad awake.—CERVANTES, *Don Quixote.*
19. Mr. McPherson, who has been successful in his business, did not consider this matter very important.
20. Thou found'st me poor at first, and keep'st me so.
- GOLDSMITH, *The Deserted Village.*

106. WORDS AS MORE THAN ONE PART OF SPEECH. Pupils should keep in mind the fact that the value of a word, phrase, or clause is determined by its use in the sentence. The same word may be two or three different parts of speech, according to its use.

1. Many words commonly used as nouns are used also as adjectives.

A *gold* watch, a *paper* shade, a *bone* handle, an *iron* spike.

2. A few words generally used as adverbs are sometimes adjectives.

The *above* words, the *down* train, the *then* governor.

3. Phrases and clauses are adjectival when they modify substantives.

- (a) The cliffs *along the Niagara River* are very high.
The war *between the Teutons and the Entente* has ended.
The horses *of my friends* are very fast.
- (b) The books *that you bought* are very interesting.

107. SUBSTANTIVES WITH ADJECTIVAL FUNCTION. Substantives in the genitive case, in apposition, or in the predicate nominative construction, have adjectival functions.¹

- (a) *John's* house, the *King's* navy, the *people's* rights, *whose* books.
- (b) Tom, the *tinker*, is here. Give this to your friend, the *merchant*.
- (c) John is a *runner*. Clemenceau was *president*. You are *he*.

Each of the genitive cases in (a) modifies the substantive following.

Tinker modifies *Tom*, and *merchant* modifies *friend*. In (c) each of the italicised words modifies the subject of its sentence. We call all these italicised words nouns or pronouns, but each has an adjectival function in its sentence.

108. SPECIAL CASES. The uses of the italicised adjectives in the following sentences present some difficulty.

To be *virtuous* is to be truly *happy*.

The king's being so *young* was unfortunate.

His being *skilful* was very important.

Virtuous and *happy* of sentence 1 are predicate adjectives, each serving as complement of a verb *to be*. In each case the verb and its complement express a noun idea. This is shown by the paraphrase,

Virtue is true happiness.

Young and *skilful* of the second and third sentences are predicate adjectives modifying *king* and *he*, which in these sentences are represented by the genitive case *King's* and the possessive adjective *his*. The sentences might be paraphrased thus :

The fact that the *king was young* was unfortunate.

The fact that *he was skilful* was important.

¹ Compare the function of the substantive used as complement of an infinitive. (Section 61.)

109. **PARSING OF ADJECTIVES.** In the parsing of the adjective it is sufficient to mention its class, and to explain its syntax. (See page 268.)

These busy boys are happy.

These: dem. adj., mod. the noun *boys*, adherently.

busy: descrip. adj., mod. the noun *boys*, adherently.

happy: descrip. adj., mod. the noun *boys* predicatively, and completing the verb *are*.

EXERCISE 69

Classify the italicised words and phrases in the following sentences, and explain the syntax of each.

1. My being *old* prevents me from changing my profession.
2. They beguile the giver, who, if he knew the truth, would give to the *poor* indeed, and help the *neediest* of all.—*LANGLAND, Piers Plowman*.
3. As the *up* train was late, it had to wait here for the *down* express.
4. His natural humility will not allow him to become *proud*.
5. To be *narrow-minded* is often a sign of ignorance.
6. Many of the houses on *Evelyn Avenue* are owned by their occupants.
7. Balfour, the *then premier of England*, was a *scholar* as well as a statesman.
8. The Britons are said to have used *iron* bars as money.
9. To be *contented* is a large part of being *happy*.
10. Have any of you read *Defoe's "Adventures of Captain Singleton"*?
11. His being *able* to tell a story well, makes his books *interesting*.
12. The boy *without a knowledge of Robinson Crusoe* has a wrong to be righted.

110. **ADJECTIVAL CLAUSES.** The classification of these clauses is very simple. Like ordinary adjectives, they are either descriptive or limiting.

I. **Descriptive Clauses.** An adjectival clause is descriptive when it is used merely to describe the thing represented by the substantive.

My father, whom you saw yesterday, has gone home.

President Wilson, who attended the Peace Conference, has returned to the United States.

Montreal, which is on the St. Lawrence, has many industries.

The nouns *father*, *Wilson*, and *Montreal* are so definite, as used here, that the meaning of the sentences would

be clear if the adjectival clauses were omitted. The clauses are used simply to describe, to give additional information about my father, President Wilson, and Montreal. Notice that these clauses are separated from the words they modify by commas.

2. Limiting¹ Clauses. An adjective clause is limiting when its main purpose is to limit the application or meaning of the substantive it modifies.

The man *that you saw yesterday*, has gone home.

The lawyer *that attended the Peace Conference*, has returned.

The nouns *man* and *lawyer* are so indefinite, as used in these sentences, that the adjectival clauses are added to show what man and what lawyer are meant. The clauses describe, but their chief function is to limit the application of the nouns. Notice that the limiting clause is not separated from the word it modifies by a comma.

The relative pronoun *that* is often used to introduce the limiting clause, but is never used with the purely descriptive clause.

EXERCISE 70

Classify the adjectival clauses in the following sentences, and explain the function of each.

1. The priest who lived with Robin Hood was called the Clerk of Copmanhurst.
2. Only the boys that have heard of Robin Hood should be asked to do this exercise.
3. Two much more difficult ones ought to be given any pupils that have not made his acquaintance.
4. The Clerk, who had a cell in the thick woods, was more interested in good living than in his priestly duties.
5. Once his cell was visited by Richard the First, who was in disguise and who asked for a meal.
6. The host, who was trying to give the impression that he lived on hermit's fare, set some dried pease before the king.
7. This dish, which was just as dry then as it would be now, did not suit the jovial monarch.
8. However, he laboriously chewed a small helping of the only food that was offered him.

¹ The American Joint Committee recommends the term *determinative*. It seems better, however, to keep the same term that is used in classifying ordinary adjectives.

9. We do not wonder when we learn that he soon asked for wine, which was the usual drink in those days.
10. But all that the hermit gave him was water in a large can.
11. "This is from the well of St. Dunstan," said he, "in which, betwixt sun and sun, he baptised five hundred heathen Danes and Britons."
12. The king made the best of the beverage, which, to his mind, was better fitted for the use to which the saint had put it than for drinking.
13. Looking at the hermit's huge body, which gave indication of neither privation nor scanty diet, he observed "The small morsels which you eat, and this thin beverage, seem to have agreed with you excellently."
14. After a few more hints, the king persuaded him to look in the pantry again, to see if all the food that was there had been placed on the table.
15. As a result, a huge pastry, in which were great pieces of venison, appeared upon the scene.
16. Girls who have spent all their lives in Canada, do not call a meat-pie a "pasty."
17. The king was the only person that had the right to hunt the deer in this forest. This fact added to Richard's amusement.
18. Later, some wine, which was kept in a leather bottle holding a gallon, was discovered.
19. This took the place of the water from the well in which the pagans had been baptised.
20. The hermit, who for some reason was now in high spirits, invited Richard to sing a song.
21. As his own share of the entertainment, which was loud if not long, he gave the old English song known as "The Barefooted Friar."
22. Next came a duet, which was interrupted by a loud knocking.
23. You may imagine the vexation which the hermit felt at being caught in this strange performance.
24. "Any visitor that did not know my serious character," said he, "might make the mistake of regarding my kindly hospitality to you as mere drunkenness and revelry."
25. But the travellers whose knocks had disturbed his peace of mind, proved to be friends.
26. The incident is described more fully in *Ivanhoe*, a book which you should read.

CHAPTER V

THE VERB

I. CLASSIFICATION

III. A VERB is a word or phrase by means of which we make a declaration or ask a question. It is the essential part of the predicate of a sentence.

112. Verbs are classified according to meaning and use, as follows:

Transitive	
Intransitive	{ Linking Complete

113. A TRANSITIVE VERB is one that expresses an action which requires an object.

Henry *split* the wood, and his brother *piled it*.

The verbs *split* and *piled* express action. The noun *wood* and the pronoun *it* represent the objects of the action.

114. All verbs that are not transitive are called intransitive. They fall into two classes, complete and linking.

1. A LINKING VERB simply joins the subject and a complement.

(a) The picture *is* beautiful.

(b) He *remains* my friend.

The verb *is* does not express action, but serves to join the complement *beautiful* to the subject *picture*. This complement modifies the subject, and completes the verb in the sense that it assists the verb to make an assertion. The noun *friend* in (b) modifies *he* and completes *remains*.

2. A COMPLETE verb is one that requires neither an object nor a complement, in making a declaration,

or asking a question. It may, however, be modified by an adverb, as in the following sentences :

The boys run <i>fast</i> .	She skips <i>well</i> .
Birds fly <i>rapidly</i> .	I walk <i>quickly</i> .

115. Use in the sentence determines the classification of a verb as transitive, complete, or linking.

1. This boy *writes* his exercise, and then *reads* it. Transitive.
2. He *writes* and *reads* every day. Complete.
3. This man *appeared* suddenly on the stage. Complete.
4. The people *appeared* sad. Linking
5. The farmer *grew* many potatoes. Transitive.
6. The potatoes *grew* rapidly. Complete.
7. The boys *grew* tired of the game. Linking.

It should be remembered that in each case the difference in use in these verbs corresponds to a difference in meaning. This is very plain in sentences 5, 6 and 7. *Grew* in 5 means *raised*, or *caused to grow*; *grew* in 7 means *became*.

116. Linking verbs are sometimes difficult to recognise. The student should remember that the substantive, or adjective, which completes a linking verb, refers to, or modifies the subject. The reflexive object (section 81, 3), in such sentences as "He praises *himself*," represents the same person as does the subject, but it is unlike a complement in that it is the object of a transitive verb. The chief linking verbs are used in the following sentences. The verb *be* is by far the commonest of the class.

You *are* my friend. He *became* my enemy. He *went* mad. The sky *grew* dark. It *turned* cold. Henry *remained* silent. They *continued* spiteful. You *appear* vexed. You *seem* vexed. You *look* vexed. You *feel* vexed. The door *stands* open. The dog *lies* still. My blood *runs* cold. They *sat* quiet.

117. To be is usually a linking verb, but is sometimes complete.

God *is*.

He *is* a rewarder of them that diligently seek him.—
Hebrews xi. 6.

The first *is* means *exists*, and is complete. The second *is* joins the subject *He* and the complement *rewarder*, and so is a linking verb.

EXERCISE 71

Classify the verbs in the following sentences, and explain the syntax of italicised nouns and pronouns.

1. George became *King of England* in 1760.
2. Although the street was narrow, the chauffeur turned the *car* easily.
3. Judas turned *traitor* for thirty pieces of silver.
4. She seemed a *goddess*.
5. The gardeners grow these fragrant *onions* in hot-beds.
6. The poor fellow went insane, and now lives in the hospital.
7. And now there came both *mist* and snow,
And it grew wondrous cold.

COLERIDGE, *The Ancient Mariner*.

8. The bride hath paced into the hall,
Red as a rose is she.

COLERIDGE, *The Ancient Mariner*.

9. His virtues walked their narrow *round*.

DR. S. JOHNSON.

10. Calm is my soul, nor apt to rise in arms,
Except when fast-approaching danger warns.

GOLDSMITH, *The Traveller*.

11. When all aloud the wind doth blow,
And coughing drowns the parson's *saw*,
And birds sit brooding in the snow,
And Marian's nose looks red and raw.

SHAKESPEARE.

12. My lady-mother there
Sits lonely in her castle-hall.

SCOTT, *Rosabelle*.

13. In the full furnace of this hour
My thoughts grow keen and clear.

LAMPMAN, *Heat*.

14. Perhaps their loves, or else their sheep,
Was *all* that did their silly thoughts so busy keep.

MILTON, *Ode on The Morning of Christ's Nativity*.

15. I muse (marvel) your Majesty doth seem so cold,
When such profound respects do pull you on.

SHAKESPEARE, *King John*.

16. Be *thou* the trumpet of our wrath.

SHAKESPEARE, *King John*.

17. He that proves the *King*,
To him will we prove loyal.

SHAKESPEARE, *King John*.

18. Rescue these breathing *lives*
That here come *sacrifices* for the field (of battle).

SHAKESPEARE, *King John*

19. And then at last our bliss
Full and perfect is.

MILTON.

20. Fair daffodils, we weep to see
 You haste away so soon :
 As yet the early-rising Sun
 Has not attained his noon.
 Stay, stay,
 Until the hastening day
 Has run
 But to the even-song ;
 And, having pray'd together, we
 Will go with you along.

HERRICK.

II. INFLECTION

118. **Verbs are inflected to mark distinctions of tense, person, number, and mood.** These distinctions and that of voice are marked also by means of verb phrases. **TENSE** indicates time. **PERSON** and **NUMBER** in verbs correspond with person and number in substantives. **MOOD** indicates the attitude of the speaker. **VOICE** shows whether something acts or is acted upon.

119. According to their method of inflection,¹ verbs are divided into two classes, or conjugations, called **weak** and **strong**.

1. **WEAK VERBS** form the past tense and the past participle by adding -(e)d, or -t to the stem,² or simplest form of the word.

walk, walked, walked ; wish, wished, wished ;
 burn, burned or burnt, burned or burnt.

2. Some weak verbs have minor peculiarities :

(a) A few have two forms for past tense, or past participle, or both:

learn, learned or learnt, learned or learnt
 spill, spilled or spilt, spilled or spilt
 bend, bent, bended or bent
 build, built, builded or built

¹ The inflection of a verb is often called its *conjugation*. A verb is said to be *conjugated*, when it is inflected. A secondary meaning of the word *conjugation* is "class" (according to inflection).

² The simplest form of a word, the form to which inflectional endings are added, is called the *stem*. In nouns and pronouns it is the nominative singular, in adjectives and adverbs the positive, and in verbs the infinitive.

(b) A considerable number shorten the vowel of the stem when adding *-d* or *-t*:

creep, crept, crept	bereave, bereft, bereft (or bereaved, bereaved)
deal, dealt, dealt ¹	
flee, fled, fled	
sleep, slept, slept	say, said, said ¹

(c) A few verbs change entirely the vowel of the stem when adding *-d* or *-t*.

buy, bought, bought **sell, sold, sold**
bring, brought, brought **seek, sought, sought**

(d) A good many verbs whose stems end in *-d* or *-t* do not add *-(e)d* or *-t*, because the latter could not be conveniently pronounced.

cast, cost, hit, hurt, spread, shed.

(e) The invariable characteristic of weak verbs is the addition of *-(e)d* or *-t*, except in the case of verbs like those in (d). Consult section 238.

3. **STRONG VERBS** change the vowel of the stem in forming past tense and past participle, and many of them add *-(e)n* to the past participle. (See section 235.)

drink, drank, drunk	blow, blew, blown
cling, clung, clung	bid, bade, bidden
rise, rose, risen	lie, lay, lain
choose, chose, chosen	fall, fell, fallen

4. IRREGULAR VERBS. (Compare sections 233 and 239.)

(a) Be is made up of parts from several different roots.

am, is, was, been.

(b) *Go* has a past tense which belonged originally to another verb *wend*.

Go, went, gone.

(c) *Do* has a past tense formed by reduplication,² or doubling of the stem.

Do, did, done.

¹ The vowel has really been shortened, although the spelling does not show it.

² Compare the German verb, *thun, that, gethan*, and the Latin verb, *cado, cadere, cecidi*.

(d) *Can, may, shall, will*, have neither infinitives nor participles. Their present tenses are old strong past tenses, whose places as past tenses have been taken by new weak pasts ending in *-d* or *-t*.

could, might, should, would.

(e) *Must* and *ought*, which likewise have neither infinitives nor participles, are now present tenses. Formerly they were weak past tenses.

(f) *Wit* (present tense *wot*) is obsolete, except in the expression *to wit*.

5. The infinitive, the past tense, and the past participle are called the **principal parts** of the verb, because from them, except in a few cases, all the other parts of the verb can be formed.

6. Lists of peculiar weak verbs and of strong verbs will be found in Appendix B.

EXERCISE 72

Classify the following verbs as weak, strong, or irregular, and give the principal parts of each:

abide	fall	may	speak
awake	flee	mean	spin
be	fling	melt	spit
beat	flow	put	spring
become	fly	read	strike
begin	forsake	ride	swear
beseach	get	ring	swell
bid (command)	go	saw	swim
bid (offer money)	hang	see	swing
bite	have	set	take
bring	joke	shall	tear
build	kneel	shine	throw
can	know	shoot	wake
chide	lay	shrink	weep
come	lead	sing	will
drink	lend	sink	win
dwell	lie (recline)	sit	wring
draw	lie (tell a falsehood)	slide	
eat	light	smite	write

EXERCISE 73

(a) Classify each verb in the following extract as transitive, linking, or complete.

(b) Tell whether each verb is weak, strong, or irregular, and give its principal parts.

Burn'd Marmion's swarthy cheek like fire,
And shook his very frame for ire,
And—" This to me ! " he said,—
" An 'twere not for thy hoary beard,
Such hand as Marmion's had not spared
To cleave the Douglas' head !
And, first, I tell thee, haughty Peer,
He, who does England's message here,
Although the meanest in her state,
May well, proud Angus, be thy mate :
And, Douglas, more I tell thee here,
Even in thy pitch of pride,
Here in thy hold, thy vassals near,
(Nay, never look upon your lord,
And lay your hands upon your sword,)
I tell thee, thou'rt defied ;
And if thou saidst, I am not peer
To any lord in Scotland here,
Lowland or Highland, far or near,
Lord Angus, thou hast lied !"—
On the Earl's cheek the flush of rage
O'ercame the ashen hue of age :
Fierce he broke forth,—" And darest thou then
To beard the lion in his den,
The Douglas in his hall ?
And hopest thou hence unscathed to go ?—
No, by Saint Bride of Bothwell, no !
Up drawbridge, grooms—what, Warder, ho !
Let the portcullis fall."

Lord Marmion turn'd—well was his need,
And dash'd the rowels in his steed,
Like arrow through the archway sprung,
The ponderous grate behind him rung :
To pass there was such scanty room,
The bars, descending, razed his plume.

The steed along the drawbridge flies,
Just as it trembles on the rise ;
Nor lighter does the swallow skim
Along the smooth lake's level brim :
And when Lord Marmion reached his band,
He halts, and turns with clenched hand,
And shout of loud defiance pours,
And shook his gauntlet at the towers.

SCOTT, *Marmion*.

III. TENSE

120. Tense indicates time. By means of its tense-forms the verb distinguishes between present, past, and future

time. Tenses are formed by means of inflections and phrases. The three simple tenses (indicative mood) of the verb *call* are as follows:

PRESENT		PAST	
Sing.	Plural	Sing.	Plural
1st Per. I call	We call	I call-ed	We call-ed
2nd Per. Thou call-est	You call	Thou call-ed-st	You call-ed
3rd Per. He call-s	They call	He call-ed	They call-ed

FUTURE	
Sing.	Plural
1st Pers. I shall call	We shall call
2nd Pers. Thou wilt call	You will call
3rd Pers. He will call	They will call

Notice concerning these verbs: (1) the way the past tense is formed from the stem *call*, (2) the way the future tense is formed, (3) the way person and number are shown.

Although the verb-forms given above with *thou* are not now used in everyday speech, they are still found in literature. For the sake of simplicity, the forms with *you* are treated as plural, although we use them in the singular also.

121. As you learned in section 119, many strong verbs form their past tenses by means of a change in the vowel of the stem. The past tenses of *drink* and *choose* are as follows:

I drank	We drank	I chose	We chose
Thou drank-est	You drank	Thou chos-est	You chose
He drank	They drank	He chose	They chose

122. The verb *be* is very irregular. Its present, past, and future tenses are, therefore, given.

PRESENT		PAST	
I am	We are	I was	We were
Thou art	You are	Thou wast (wert)	You were
He is	They are	He was	They were

FUTURE	
I shall be	We shall be
Thou wilt be	You will be
He will be	They will be

The very common verb *have* is irregular in the present tense.

I have	We have
Thou hast	You have
He has (hath)	They have

EXERCISE 74

1. (a) Write in full : (1) the past tense, (2) the future tense of *pray*.
 (b) State clearly how you formed each of these tenses.
2. What inflections are used in the present and past tenses to indicate the person of the verb?
3. (a) Supply the proper form of the present tense of *be* in the sentence, "You — a soldier."
 (b) What peculiarity is there in the number of the word you have supplied?
 (c) From your study of personal pronouns, account for this peculiarity.
4. (a) Conjugate the following verbs in the present, past, and future tenses : *walk, run, go, see, eat, fly, carry*.
 (b) Classify them as weak, strong, or irregular. Give your reason in each case.

PRESENT TENSES (INDICATIVE)

123. There are two present tenses, the PRESENT and the PRESENT PERFECT. The former expresses present action or state ; the latter expresses the completion in the present of some act or state. The present tense has three forms, and the present perfect tense has two. The following are the present and present perfect tenses of *give*:

PRESENT TENSE

Ordinary Form	Progressive Form	Emphatic Form
I give	I am giving	I do give
Thou givest	Thou art giving	Thou dost give
He gives	He is giving	He does give
We give	We are giving	We do give
You give	You are giving	You do give
They give	They are giving	They do give

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

Ordinary Form	Progressive Form
I have given	I have been giving
Thou hast given	Thou hast been giving
He has given	He has been giving
We have given	We have been giving
You have given	You have been giving
They have given	They have been giving

The progressive form of each tense is used to express continuity of action or state. The third form of the present is often emphatic, but is the usual one in questions and negations.

I do wish you would do as I say. (Emphatic.)

Do you wish me to go?

No, I do not wish your company.

124. Verbs like *be* (am, art, have been, hast been, etc.), *do*, and *have*, when used, as here, to form the phrasal tenses of other verbs, are called **auxiliary (or helping) verbs**. They retain little of their ordinary meaning, and each is simply part of the phrasal form of another verb. They perform the same function in English that is performed in Latin and other languages by endings, or suffixes.¹

Notice that phrasal tenses are formed by combining an auxiliary verb with a present participle (giving), an infinitive (give), or a past participle (given).

Be, *do*, *have*, are also used as principal verbs, and have the usual tenses. For instance, the five present tense forms of *do* and *have* are as follows, in the first person singular:

I do, I am doing, I do do, I have done, I have been doing.

I have, I am having, I do have, I have had, I have been having.

Be has only one present tense, *I am*, etc., and one present perfect tense, *I have been*, etc.

125. The present tense is sometimes used to express

¹ Compare the English and Latin verbs *carry* and *porto*.

I carry: porto.

I have carried: portavi.

I was carrying: portabam.

I shall carry: portabo.

future time. There is a marked tendency in conversation to substitute the present for the future tense.

The train arrives in a few minutes.

The Peace Conference meets in three weeks.

I am going to see him to-morrow.

In animated narrative, the present tense is used instead of the past tense, and is then called the **historic present**.

Suddenly the enemy *appears* to the left, and *opens* a merciless fire on our flank.

EXERCISE 75

Write out all forms of the present and present perfect tenses of the following verbs :

Make, put, buy, seek, drink, throw, fall, see, break, grind, strive, catch, tell, spread, flee, weep, bend, burn, gild, spend, kneel, knit, have, be, do.

PAST TENSES (INDICATIVE)

126. There are two past tenses, the PAST and the PAST PERFECT. The former expresses past action or state; the latter expresses the completion in the past of some act or state. The past tense has three forms, and the past perfect tense has two. These tenses of the verb *give* are as follows :

PAST TENSE

Ordinary	Progressive	Emphatic
I gave	I was giving	I did give
Thou gavest	Thou wast giving	Thou didst give
He gave	He was giving	He did give
We gave	We were giving	We did give
You gave	You were giving	You did give
They gave	They were giving	They did give

PAST PERFECT TENSE

Ordinary	Progressive
I had given	I had been giving
Thou hadst given	Thou hadst been giving
He had given	He had been giving
We had given	We had been giving
You had given	You had been giving
They had given	They had been giving

As with the present tenses, the second form of each past tense is used to express continuity of action or state. The third form of the past tense is often emphatic, but is the usual one in questions and negations.

The verb *be* was formerly used to form the present perfect and past perfect tenses of verbs of motion.¹

I am come a light into the world.—John xii. 46.

And when they *were come* down into the ship, the wind ceased.—Matthew xiv. 32.

Very many examples of this use of the auxiliary *be* are found in the King James version of the Bible, and in other literature, but it is now obsolete.

EXERCISE 76

Write out the past tenses of the following verbs :

Spill, spoil, lend, send, sweep, leave, say, feed, cost, buy, sell, begin, spin, ride, speak, break, know, slay, take, fly, sit, eat, have, be, do.

EXERCISE 77

Explain the function of the verb *do* in each of the following sentences:

1. He did say this, did he not ?
2. No, he did not say it ; he did it.
3. Do shut the door !
4. The old man does try hard to make a living.
5. Do you think that this wind will bring rain ?
6. These boys do not do their work very well.
7. Do I look like a cudgel or a hovel-post, a staff or a prop ?—SHAKESPEARE, *The Merchant of Venice*.
8. We did all that was necessary.
9. No nightingale did ever chaunt more welcome notes.

WORDSWORTH, *The Reaper*.

10. Fair pledges of a fruitful tree, why do you fall so fast ?

HERRICK, *The Blossoms*.

EXERCISE 78

Explain the function of the verbs *be* and *have* wherever they occur in the following sentences:

1. Silver and gold have I none.—Acts iii. 6.
2. We have piped unto you, and ye have not danced.—Luke vii. 32.

¹ In French and German, verbs of motion take as auxiliaries the corresponding verbs: *Je suis venu.* *Ich bin gekommen.*

3. He had nothing to say.
4. He had had many followers, but few friends.
5. Of all the Britons, those who dwell in Kent are the most civilised.—CÆSAR, *The Gallic War*.
6. Our friend, Mr. McKim, is now teaching in Calgary.
7. On that evening I had been lecturing on the genius of some of our comic writers. My audience was scanty, perhaps equal to my deserts.—THACKERAY, *The Newcomes*.
8. While I was thus musing, my worthy friend, the clergyman, who was at the Club that night, undertook my cause.—ADDISON, *The Spectator*.
9. Have you guessed the riddle yet?
10. The Dormouse, who had just woke up, said, without opening its eyes, "Of course, of course, just what I was going to remark myself."—CARROLL, *Alice in Wonderland*.
11. I have been working at this problem for half-an-hour.
12. Miracles are ceased.—SHAKESPEARE, *Henry V*.
13. My Lord Chesterfield had killed another gentleman, and was fled.
14. I am debating of my present store.—SHAKESPEARE, *The Merchant of Venice*.
15. Here, too, we drank tea, which now was become an occasional banquet; and as we had it but seldom, its preparation gave us new joy.—GOLDSMITH, *The Vicar of Wakefield*.
16. They had the whole house painted.

FUTURE TENSES (INDICATIVE)

127. There are four future tenses. Two of these are the **FUTURE** and the **FUTURE PERFECT**. The former expresses future action or state; the latter expresses the completion in the future of some act or state. Each of these tenses has two forms. The following are the future and future perfect tenses of the verb *give*:

FUTURE TENSE

Ordinary
I shall give
Thou wilt give
He will give
We shall give
You will give
They will give

Progressive
I shall be giving
Thou wilt be giving
He will be giving
We shall be giving
You will be giving
They will be giving

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

Ordinary	Progressive
I shall have given	I shall have been giving
Thou wilt have given	Thou wilt have been giving
He will have given	He will have been giving
We shall have given	We shall have been giving
You will have given	You will have been giving
They will have given	They will have been giving

Shall and *will* are the auxiliaries of the future tenses. *Shall* is used in the first person, *will* in the second and third persons. When used in this way, these verbs have little or none of their original meaning, and simply help to form the tense of the main verb. The use of *will* and *shall* as principal verbs will be explained a little later.¹

Remember that *shall* is the only correct auxiliary for the first person of the future tense. Many people use *will*, but they do so incorrectly. *I shall give* is the first person of the future tense of *give*; *I will give* is no part of the future tense at all.

128. There are two other future tenses, the PAST FUTURE and the PAST FUTURE PERFECT, which are used only in indirect discourse after a verb of saying or reporting in the past tense, *i.e.*, when some declaration or question is reported by a speaker who uses the past tense. The following sentences illustrate the point :

I shall come.	{	He says I shall come.
		He said I <i>should</i> come.
You will come.	{	He says you will come.
		He said you <i>would</i> come.
They will come.	{	He says they will come.
		He said they <i>would</i> come.

After verbs of saying or reporting in the past tense, the auxiliaries *shall* and *will* are replaced by their past tenses *should* and *would*.

¹ Some grammarians speak of a *promissive future* tense, in which *will* is used in the first person, and *shall* in the second and third persons, thus : *I will give*, *thou shalt give*, *he shall give*, etc. This, however, is not really a tense of the verb *give*. For a treatment of this point, see sect. 142.

PAST FUTURE

Ordinary	Progressive
I should give	I should be giving
Thou wouldst give	Thou wouldst be giving
He would give	He would be giving
We should give	We should be giving
You would give	You would be giving
They would give	They would be giving

PAST FUTURE PERFECT

Ordinary	Progressive
I should have given	I should have been giving
Thou wouldst have given	Thou wouldst have been giving
He would have given	He would have been giving
We should have given	We should have been giving
You would have given	You would have been giving
They would have given	They would have been giving

The second form in each of the four future tenses expresses continued action or state, as do the corresponding forms of the present and past tenses.

EXERCISE 79

Write both forms of each of the four future tenses of the following verbs :

Pen, spoil, bend, deal, flee, meet, cut, buy, think, spin, strike, chide, grind, break, tread, stand, burst, give, tear, shear, shine, drive, have, be, do.

EXERCISE (80)

Name the tense of each italicised verb in the following sentences :

1. He *did not send* us any aid.
2. He *told* us that he *would be going*.
3. I *had been thinking* for a long time that they *would come*.
4. *Do* they *expect* us to forgive and forget?
5. We *shall be digging* the garden, when the warm weather *comes*.
6. They *have not had* as much success as you.
7. He *had* nothing to show for his year's work.
8. It *has been raining* for hours.
9. The philosopher *does not tell* us what to expect.
10. *Will* no one *tell* me what she sings?
11. He *will have finished* the work by six o'clock.
12. They *do work* hard, but no matter what they *do*, everything *seems* to go wrong.

13. The captain *informed* his men that they *would go* "over the top" at eight o'clock.
14. They *had been going* to school so long, that they *were* quite at home there.
15. We *shall be* glad to have you visit us at any time.
16. I thought I *should have died* of fright.
17. He added that, the evening being calm, he *would pursue* his journey.
18. *Shall we sound him?* I think he *will stand* with us.—SHAKESPEARE, *Julius Cæsar*.

129. PECULIAR USES OF THE FUTURE TENSE.¹

1. In questions, *shall* replaces *will* in the second person.

Shall you be present to-morrow? Yes, I shall be present.

Shall is used in the question because it is expected in the answer.

2. The second and third persons of the future tense are used to express softened commands.

You *will leave* promptly at ten o'clock.

The boys *will remain* seated for this period.

130. VERBS WITH DOUBLE FORMS.

1. Dare.

(a) When this verb means *to challenge* it is entirely regular.

(b) When it means *to venture*, its oldest meaning, it has two forms in the third singular, present indicative, *dare* and *dares*. The former is used, when followed by an infinitive without *to*, or by a negative adverb.

The swimmer *dare* go no further. He *dare* not face these waves.

In the past tense it has two forms, *durst* (little used), and *dared*. The former is used when followed by a negative adverb. (For history see sect. 239.)

2. Need.

This verb resembles *dare* in having two forms, *need*

¹ For a full discussion of the uses of *shall* and *will*, the teacher might consult Sweet, *New English Grammar*, sections 2196–2202; and Fowler, *The King's English*, pp. 133–156.

and *needs*, in the third singular, present indicative. The first form is used when followed by an infinitive without *to*, or by a negative adverb.

Need he do this work to-day? He *need* not do it till to-morrow.

131. SUMMARY OF THE TENSES (of the Indicative Mood).

	Ordinary	Progressive	Emphatic
Present:	I give	I <i>am</i> giving	I <i>do</i> give
Present Perf.:	I <i>have</i> given	I <i>have been</i> giving	
Past:	I <i>gave</i>	I <i>was</i> giving	I <i>did</i> give
Past Perf.:	I <i>had</i> given	I <i>had been</i> giving	
Future:	I <i>shall</i> give	I <i>shall be</i> giving	
Future Perf.:	I <i>shall have</i> given	I <i>shall have been</i> giving	
Past Future:	I <i>should</i> give	I <i>should be</i> giving	
Past Fut. Perf.:	I <i>should have</i> given	I <i>should have been</i> giving	

Notice the following points concerning these tenses:

1. The progressive form of each tense expresses continuance of action (or of state in some verbs).
2. The emphatic form (in the present and past tenses) is so called, because it is often used to express emphasis.
3. Each of the phrasal tenses is formed by prefixing an auxiliary to the infinitive (give), the present participle (giving), or the past participle (given). The auxiliaries are italicised in the summary above.
4. The auxiliary of each ordinary perfect tense is some form of the verb *have* (have, had, shall have, should have).
5. The auxiliaries of the ordinary future tense are *shall* and *will*, and those of the ordinary past future are *should* and *would*, the past tenses of *shall* and *will*.
6. The auxiliary of each progressive tense is some form of the verb *be* (am, have been, was, etc.).
7. The auxiliaries of the emphatic tenses are *do* and *did*.

EXERCISE 81

1. Write out a summary of the tenses of the indicative mood of each of the following verbs:

Spin, hide, speak, grow, hold, keep, lend, say, meet, buy, sell, have, be, do.

2. Name the tenses of the italicised verbs in the following sentences:

1. I shall have seen everything in the city worth seeing.
2. We have been reading Carlyle's works for a year or more.
3. Did he say that the sun *revolves* about the earth?
4. I thought that I should have been able to reward him more liberally.
5. Bob McDonald will have been working for an hour before you are stirring.
6. They do not think it right to break the law.
7. Jabez, an old friend of ours, has been an invalid for some time.
8. Harvey did drive the car with great skill.
9. He said that his father would pay the note when it came due.
10. Mother will be thinking that we are not coming to-day.
11. I shall have finished this exercise to-day.
12. I told him that I should be sixteen years old on Thursday.
13. During a long and eventful life he had had experience of much ill-fortune, but at last the day had come when his troubles were to end.
14. We shall go home now, since they are expecting us.
15. He was saying that he would have completed three years' service in June.
16. Mr. Mulligan will not be buying sugar for a long time, as he has laid in a great stock.
17. The old man was telling us many stories of the early settlers of Fullarton.
18. McQuarrie had been looking for a house.
19. I informed him that I should be working in the garden all evening.
20. The Hatter had taken his watch out of his pocket, and was looking at it uneasily, shaking it every now and then, and holding it to his ear. "Two days wrong!" sighed he. "I told you butter wouldn't suit the works!"—CARROLL, *Alice in Wonderland*.
21. Now hath the summer reached her golden close,
The kingbird and the pensive thrush are fled.
A. LAMPMAN, *September*.
22. Where does my sweetheart Baby go,
While the cradle is swinging her to and fro?
W. P. MCKENZIE, *Lullaby Song*.
23. So the other told him that when he was gone some distance from the gate, he would come to the house of the Interpreter, who would show him some excellent things.—BUNYAN, *The Pilgrim's Progress*.
24. Peaceful life was not what they desired, and an honourable death had no terrors for them.—FROUDE, *England's Forgotten Worthies*.

IV. MOOD

132. Compare the following sentences:

Our friend is here to-day, and we are happy.
If our friend were here to-day, we should be happy.
Be here to-morrow, and make us happy.

In the first sentence, the speaker represents the presence of our friend and our happiness as facts. In the second sentence he treats them as mere conceptions, for our friend is, in fact, not present. In the third sentence, the speaker expresses a command or exhortation. These three manners, or modes, or *moods*, of expressing one's thought are shown by the form or use of the verb, and to these forms or uses names are given as follows :

The **INDICATIVE MOOD** is the mood of fact, or what is represented as fact.

The **SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD** is the mood of conception, or thought.

The **IMPERATIVE MOOD** is the mood of command, and exhortation.

You have already had the tenses of the indicative mood, and very many examples of its use. We shall now turn to the subjunctive mood.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD¹

133. The subjunctive mood has four tenses, PRESENT, PRESENT PERFECT, PAST, and PAST PERFECT.² It

¹ To THE TEACHER : The subjunctive mood, a difficult subject, is treated here in considerable detail. It is suggested that an accurate knowledge of the commoner uses, such as those of *wish*, *purpose*, and *condition*, should be sufficient for junior classes. Regard should be had, also, to the amount of time to be devoted to this part of the work.

² Two tendencies have been active since Old English times in connection with the subjunctive mood. First, distinctive subjunctive forms have gradually disappeared ; secondly, subjunctive phrases formed with the help of the auxiliaries *may* (*might*), *should*, and *would*, have largely replaced the ordinary subjunctive tenses ; thirdly, the indicative mood has taken the place of the subjunctive mood in many constructions.

The result of the disappearance of the simple subjunctive forms is that in Modern English, outside of the verb *be*, we have only two distinctive subjunctive forms, the second and third persons singular of the present tense (*thou love*, *he love*). Even these are obsolescent, and survive mainly in expressions of wish. "God save the King!" "God save thee, ancient Mariner!" "We recommend that you study grammar." While the present subjunctive *be* occurs rarely, the past subjunctive *were* is still much used, especially in conditional

has no future tenses. Each of the tenses, except the present perfect, has more than one form; the second and third forms are in each case phrasal.

PRESENT TENSE

I give	I may give
Thou give	Thou may(e)st give
He give	He may give
We give	We may give
You give	You may give
They give	They may give

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE¹

I may have given
Thou may(e)st have given
He may have given
We may have given
You may have given
They may have given

EXERCISE 82

1. Compare the simple present subjunctive with the corresponding indicative tense.
2. Write out the present and present perfect subjunctive tenses (all forms) of the following verbs:

Take, slay, bid, drive, ring, hit, catch, feed, tell, feel, sleep, bend, say, do, burn, spoil, spell, burst, blow, give, come, grow, weave, strive, see, have, be.

sentences: "If they *were* here, you would help them." "He acts as if he *were* insane."

Although Modern English has few simple subjunctive forms, we still express subjunctive ideas by means of phrases formed with the help of the modal auxiliaries *may* (*might*), *should*, and *would*. While it is correct to say that the simple subjunctive forms are disappearing, it is quite incorrect to say that English is discarding the subjunctive mood. It is true, however, that Old English (and to a lesser extent Middle English), used the subjunctive much more than does Modern English. For a full discussion of the subjunctive mood, with many illustrations, see Sweet, *A New English Grammar*, sections 2259-76, and Kellner, *Historical Outlines of English Syntax*, sections 380-91.

Because simple subjunctive forms have so largely disappeared, only the phrasal tenses formed with the modal auxiliaries are given in full, except in the case of the present tense.

¹ The simple present perfect subjunctive, *I have given, thou have given, he have given*, etc., is now entirely obsolete.

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PAST TENSE

I gave	I might give	I should give
Thou gavest (gave)	Thou might(e)st give	Thou shouldst (wouldst) give
He gave	He might give	He should (would) give
We gave	We might give	We should give
You gave	You might give	You should (would) give
They gave	They might give	They should (would) give

PAST PERFECT TENSE

I had given	I might have given	I should have given
Thou hadst (had) given	Thou might(e)st have given	Thou shouldst (wouldst) have given
He had given	He might have given	He should (would) have given
We had given	We might have given	We should have given
You had given	You might have given	You should (would) have given
They had given	They might have given	They should (would) have given

1. Notice the almost entire absence, in the simple present tense, of inflection to show person and number. In the tenses formed with the help of *may*, *might*, and *should*, the only inflection of this kind is in the second person singular.

2. The verb *be* is the only one that still has distinctive simple forms for both present and past tenses.

PRESENT

I be
Thou be (beest)
He be

We be
You be
They be

PAST

I were
Thou wert (were)
He were

We were
You were
They were

135. PROGRESSIVE and EMPHATIC FORMS. The subjunctive mood, like the indicative, has progressive forms of the various tenses. The first persons, singular, of these are as follows :

PROGRESSIVE FORMS OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

Present : I be giving	I may be giving	I should be giving
Pres. Perf. : I had been giving	I might have been giving	I should have been giving
Past : I were giving	I might be giving	I should be giving
Past Perf. : I had been giving	I might have been giving	I should have been giving

EMPHATIC FORMS OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

Present: I do give
 Past: I did give

EXERCISE 83

1. Compare the simple past subjunctive with the corresponding indicative tense.

2. Write out the ordinary past and past perfect tenses of the following verbs:

Smite, ride, hide, tear, crow, let, fly, take, see, let, wear, spin, swing, strike, spill, spoil, pen, keep, tell, bring, cut, buy, sell, feed, have, be, do.

3. Write out the progressive and emphatic subjunctive tenses of:

ride, fly, strike, tell.

136. USES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD. The commonest of these uses are those expressing:

1. Wish.

(1) — God save thee, ancient Mariner,
 From the fiends that plague thee thus!

COLERIDGE, *Ancient Mariner*.

O that my people had harkened unto me, and Israel had walked in my ways!—Psalms lxxxi. 13.

We all wish that he may be successful.

I insist that he do his share.

(2) — The people demand that he should resign.

2. Purpose.

Do this well, lest your employer blame you (or should blame you).

(3) — John works hard that he may succeed.

He helped them in order that all might go well.

3. Condition.

(4) — If they were here, we should help them.

If you had been good, they would not have punished you.

If thou hadst been here, my brother had not died.—John xi. 21.

4. Concession.

(5) — Even if they were rich, they would not be happy.

However poor he may be, he shall be welcome.

Be it ever so humble, there is no place like home.—J. H. PAYNE.

5. Uncertainty.

It is possible that he *may make* a good teacher.

I cannot tell whether he *be* there or no.

I wonder whether it *be* true.

6. Obligation.

It is right that he *should do* it.

It is necessary that city and country *be* (*should be*) in sympathy.

7. 'Twere best he *speak* no harm of Brutus here.

SHAKESPEARE, *Julius Cæsar*.

EXERCISE 84

Select all examples of the subjunctive mood in the following sentences. Explain why each is in the subjunctive, and name its tense.

1. If he were here, he would tell you the same. *Condition*
2. I wish that she were going with us. *Wish*
3. "Do so," said Don Quixote, "and Heaven be with thee!"
4. It is important that the physician come at once.
5. I should count myself the coward, if I left them, my Lord Howard.
6. Hasten, lest you be too late. *Urge*
7. Would that he could tarry with us here awhile.
8. Should you find him at home, tell him what I say.
9. It seems probable that Dr. Burritt may build a new factory.
10. May our Dominion flourish then,
A goodly land and free!

EDGAR, *This Canada of Ours*.

11. If he were in the room, I should say it to his face.
12. I wish that all my foes were thus cut off.
13. The pressing need is that Britain help France.
14. He would, doubtless, do better, if he could.
15. Though he should try his best, he would not pass.
16. If he had failed, I should have felt sorry.
17. Sir Walter Scott worked for years, that he might pay his debts.
18. Eternal blessings crown my earliest friend,
And round his dwelling guardian saints attend!

GOLDSMITH, *The Traveller*.

19. Even if he had tried the door, he would not have been able to enter.
20. It was not necessary that McKim should live so far from the friends of his youth.
21. If the other boys were present to-day, they would have the pleasure of doing this exercise.
22. Heaven help us!
23. We have worked for a long time that we may reach this sentence.

137. SUBJUNCTIVE OF WISH.

The wish expressed by the subjunctive may be in either a principal or a subordinate clause.

God defend the right.

May they escape serious injury.

We wished that they *might be* very happy.

We demand that they *do* their duty.¹

138. CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

1. Both the indicative and the subjunctive are used in conditional sentences. When our attitude toward the condition and conclusion of such a sentence is neutral, when we wish to represent them as possible, in either present or past time, we use the indicative mood. When, on the other hand, we wish to represent condition and conclusion as contrary to fact, we use the subjunctive mood.

Present	Neutral : If he <i>is doing</i> that, he <i>is</i> my friend.
	Contrary to fact: If he <i>were doing</i> that, he <i>would be</i> my friend.
Past	Neutral : If he <i>did</i> that, he <i>was</i> my friend.
	Contrary to fact: If he <i>had done</i> that, he <i>would have been</i> my friend.

Our attitude towards the future is necessarily neutral, since we cannot be sure about it. If we wish to make the future condition and conclusion more vivid, we use the indicative mood; if we wish to make them less vivid, we use the subjunctive mood.

Future	More vivid: If he <i>does</i> this, he <i>will be</i> my friend.
	Less vivid: If he <i>should do</i> this, he <i>would be</i> my friend.

2. The condition and conclusion may be in different times.

If he *is doing* this (present), { he *is* my friend (present).
 { he *will be* my friend (future).

If he *did* this (past), { he *was* my friend (past).
 { he *is* my friend (present).
 { he *will be* my friend (future).

¹ When the wish is expressed in the form of a demand, or command, some grammarians apply to the construction the name *subjunctive of volition*.

139. USE OF SHOULD AND WOULD AS AUXILIARIES IN CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

1. In the conditional clause *should* is the auxiliary for all three persons.

If I *should* be present,
 If you *should* be present, } our friends would rejoice.
 If he *should* be present,

The use of *would* in the conditional clauses of the following sentences is not an exception to this rule.

If he *would* only try harder, he *would* succeed.
 If you *would* do your duty, all this trouble *would* cease.

Would is here equal to *were willing*. It is the past subjunctive of *will*, expressing wish, and is a principal verb, not an auxiliary. *Would* is never used in the conditional clause, except as a principal verb denoting *wish* or *desire*.

2. In the conclusional clause, *should* is the auxiliary of the first person, and *would* of the second and third persons.

If our friends *should* come, { I *should* rejoice.
 } you *would* rejoice.
 he *would* rejoice.

The use of *should* and *would* as auxiliaries in the conclusional clause, corresponds exactly with that of *shall* and *will* as auxiliaries of the future indicative, in which *shall* is used in the first person, and *will* in the second and third persons. As with *shall* and *will*, there is one exception. *Should* is used instead of *would* in the second person in questions, when *should* is expected in the answer.

Should you be offended, if I told you the truth? (No, I should not be offended.)

The uses of *would* and *should* in the conclusional clauses of the following sentences are not exceptions to the general rule explained above.

If he *should* do this for me, I *would* reward him (*should be willing* to reward him).

If he should do this for you, you *should* reward him (it would be your duty to reward him).

If we should do this for him, he *should* reward us (it would be his duty to reward us).

In these conclusional clauses, *would* is used in the first person to express *willing*, and *should* is used in the second and third persons to express *obligation*. *Would* and *should* are here principal verbs in the past tense of the subjunctive mood. One of the commonest errors in conversation, and in the work of careless writers, is to use *would* instead of *should*, as an auxiliary, in the first person in conclusional clauses, to express simple result.

140. SUBJUNCTIVE OF CONCESSION.

The sentence containing a clause of concession is frequently exactly like a conditional sentence, except for the use of *even*.

1. If he is your friend, I am sorry for you.
2. *Even* if he is your friend, I am sorry for you.
3. If you were rich, you would not be happy.
4. *Even* if you were rich, you would not be happy.

In the second and fourth sentences, the speaker concedes a point for the moment, whereas in the first and third sentences no such concession is made. (See section 32 for a fuller explanation of this point.) The use of *should* and *would* as auxiliaries in sentences containing concessions is the same as in conditional sentences.

Even if (I, you) he *should* come now, { *we should not be happy*.
you would not be happy.
they would not be happy.

Should is the auxiliary in the concessive clause for all persons; *should* is the auxiliary in the conclusional clause for the first person, and *would* for the second and third persons.

It should be noted that *would* is never used as a subjunctive auxiliary, except in the conclusional clauses of conditional and concessive sentences.

EXERCISE 85

Select the subjunctives in the following sentences, and explain the reason for each.

1. Blest be those feasts with simple plenty crown'd.

GOLDSMITH, *The Traveller*.

2. If doughty deeds my lady please,
Right soon I'll mount my steed.

Graham of Gartmore.

3. Speak, that my torturing doubts their end may know !
WORDSWORTH, *To a Distant Friend*.

4. "If you knew time as well as I do," said the Hatter,
"you wouldn't talk about wasting it. It's him."—CARROLL,
Alice in Wonderland.

5. Nor you, ye proud, impute to these the fault,
If memory o'er their tomb no trophies raise.

GRAY, *Elegy*.

6. He would have won the election, if his friends had permitted him to enter the field.

7. Though the hut of the peasant be poor, happiness often dwells there.

8. If the reeve should make this motion, I should support it.

9. If thou should'st never see my face again,
Pray for my soul.

TENNYSON, *The Death of Arthur*.

10. And oft though Wisdom wake, Suspicion sleeps
At Wisdom's gate.

MILTON, *Paradise Lost*.

11. The worm of conscience still began thy soul!

SHAKESPEARE, *King Richard III*.

12. Thy dukedom I resign, and do entreat
Thou pardon me my wrongs.

SHAKESPEARE, *The Tempest*.

13. If Cæsar had permitted it, Dumnorix would have remained in Gaul.

14. They dreamt not of a perishable home
Who thus could build. Be mine, in hours of fear
Or grovelling thought, to seek a refuge here.

WORDSWORTH, *Inside of King's College Chapel, Cambridge*.

15. If I should visit Fullarton, I should find many old friends gone.

16. Had he been more industrious, I should have respected him more.

17. If Brown builds a small house, he will sell it for a good price.

18. If the weather were fine, we should go to the woods.

19. Even if he had helped you, you would have been angry with him.

20. Long live our noble King !

21. Now tread we a measure!" said Young Lochinvar.

SCOTT.

22. If I had time, I should visit all my friends.

23. If he had more patience, he would have made more friends.

24. Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him.—Job xiii. 15.

25. If Mrs. Graham should invite us, we should be glad to go.

26. If I were sure of this, I should write to the friends at once.

27. If Britain would send us help, we should be able to repel the invaders.

28. Oh, had I the wings of a dove,

How soon would I see you again!

COWPER, *Alexander Selkirk*.

29. Upon the death of my father, I left the University, with the character of an odd, unaccountable fellow, that had a great deal of learning, if I would but show it.—ADDISON, *The Spectator*.

141. OTHER USES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

1. When we wish to speak less harshly of facts, we often express them by means of the subjunctive mood, treating them for the time as mere conceptions.

1. I am sorry that you *do* such things.

Indicative in a plain statement.

2. I am sorry that you *should do* such things.

Subjunctive, less harsh.

3. We regret that you *have broken* this rule. Indicative.

4. We regret that you *should have broken* this rule.

Subjunctive.

In sentence 1 the *doing* is treated as a fact; in sentence 2 it is treated as a conception, although it is a fact, in order to soften the declaration.

Other examples of this construction are the following :

What have I done that Tom *should treat* me thus ?

I am not surprised that you *should find* Latin difficult.

It is strange that Dick *should miss* his swimming lessons.

We are all sorry that she *should have failed*.

2. In clauses expressing anticipation (futurity).

Let us do it before it *be* too late (usually *is*).

We shall stay till the clock *strike* twelve (usually *strikes*).

3. There are many uses of the subjunctive, occurring only in literature, which it is unnecessary to treat in a

grammar such as this. All of them have the common characteristic of expressing conceptions, and will in most cases be easily recognised by the High School student.

4. The following uses may not be recognised at first:

(a) *I should think* you would prefer this.
We should like to see our friends.

The softened statements in these sentences are really examples of conclusional clauses, conditional clauses being understood. The first sentence, if filled out, would read: If I considered the matter, *I should think*, etc.

(b) *I feared* lest the teacher *should write* to my father.

This is an example of uncertainty. If the speaker had felt more certain of the teacher's writing, he would probably have said: I feared that the teacher *would write*, etc. (Indicative.)

EXERCISE 86

Select the subjunctives in the following sentences, and explain the reason for each.

1. Far be it from me to say that you are making a mistake.
2. Provided he do his duty, I will forgive him.
3. Thy money perish with thee!
4. We are sorry that he should have been unfair.
5. Therefore if thou bring thy gift to the altar, and there rememberest . . . —Matthew v. 23.
6. We hope you may win the game.
7. Even though it should snow, I should go to school.
8. If it would only snow, we should have a sleigh-ride.
9. I was afraid that they might see Mr. Stuart.
10. Therefore take with thee my most heavy curse.
 Which in the day of battle tire thee more
 Than all the complete armour that thou wear'st.

SHAKESPEARE, *King Richard III.*

11. Whoever he be, he shall not go unpunished.
12. It is necessary that your son learn obedience.
13. I was anxious lest he should find the house empty.
14. If I were a speaker, I should wish to thank you all for your presence.
15. We were all frightened lest the boy should fall from the roof.

16. Go charge my goblins that they grind their joints.

SHAKESPEARE, *Tempest*.

17. If it be proved against an alien
That by direct or indirect attempt
He seek the life of any citizen . . .

SHAKESPEARE, *Merchant of Venice*.

18. He pierced her brother to the heart,
(When the sun shines fair on Carlisle wall:)
So perish all, would true love part,
That Love may still be lord of all.

SCOTT, *Lay of the Last Minstrel*.

19. The Mayor sent East, West, North, and South,
To offer the Piper by word of mouth,
If he'd only return the way he went.

BROWNING, *The Pied Piper of Hamelin*.

20. If the messengers had come to the general earlier in the morning, these misfortunes would not have overtaken us, but we should have been successful in the battle.

21. It is a great pity that Mr. Patterson should be ill at this time.

22. Before the cock crow, thou shalt deny me thrice.

Matthew xxvi. 34.

23. Were it not that I hope thou wilt do me more service,
I would strike thee now, at one blow, to the ground.—BUNYAN,
The Pilgrim's Progress.

24. Prince : What would'st thou think of me, if I should weep?
Poins : I would think thee a most princely hypocrite.

SHAKESPEARE, *2 King Henry IV*.

25. If the pupils were all here, we should have a better lesson.

MAY, WILL, SHALL, ETC., AS PRINCIPAL VERBS

142. The ordinary tenses of the subjunctive mood are little used in present-day English, except to express wish, and condition contrary to fact ; but the phrasal tenses formed with the help of the auxiliaries *may*, *might*, *should* and *would* are much used. Besides their use as auxiliaries, these verbs, as well as *can* (*could*), *must*, and *ought*, are used frequently as principal verbs. As such, *may* (*might*) expresses permission ; *shall* (*should*), obligation or duty ; *will* (*would*), wish or determination ; *can* (*could*), ability ; *must*, necessity ; *ought*, duty. When

used as auxiliaries, they have lost these meanings; when used as principal verbs, they always have them.¹

I shall go

I will go

In the first of these sentences, *shall* conveys no idea of duty or obligation, but simply helps to form the future tense of the verb *go*. It is a mere auxiliary. On the other hand, *will* in the second sentence expresses wish, or determination, on the part of the speaker. It is a principal verb, and does not help to form a tense of *go*.

I shall go

I will go

Thou wilt go

Thou shalt go

He will go

He shall go

We shall go

We will go

You will go

You shall go

They will go

They shall go

The verbs in the first column (*shall go*, *wilt go*, etc.) form the future tense of *go*. In each case *shall* or *will* is a mere auxiliary, expressing futurity. The principal verbs in the second column (*will*, *shalt*, etc.) express wish or determination. They are not auxiliaries, and do not help to form a tense of the verb *go*.

143. *Would* and *should*, the past tenses of *shall* and *will*, are used both as auxiliaries and as principal verbs.

I said I should do it (indirect for

"*I shall do it*").

They said he would do it (indirect for "*He will do it*").

If he were here, I should help him.
If I were there, he would help me.

He should ^a (ought to) do it.

He would not (was unwilling to) do it.

If he came, I should help him (it would be my duty to help). *Should* is pronounced emphatically.

If I were there, he should help me (it would be his duty to help me).

} Indicative, past future of *do*.

} Subjunctive past of *help*.

} Indicative past of *shall*.

} Indicative past of *will*.

} Subjunctive past of *shall*.

Subjunctive past of *shall*.

¹ Because some of these verbs help to form phrasal tenses of the verb, and, because with their assistance we express subjunctive ideas, many grammarians call them *modal auxiliaries*.

^a *Should* in this construction was originally a past subjunctive used conditionally, but is now purely indicative. (See *The New English Dictionary*.)

If he came, I <i>would</i> help him (should be willing).	Subjunctive past of <i>will</i> .
If he <i>should</i> come, I should be glad.	Subjunctive past of <i>come</i> .
If he <i>would</i> (were willing to) give us aid, all might be well.	Subjunctive past of <i>will</i> .
He <i>would</i> do this for hours (was accustomed to do this).	Indicative past of <i>will</i> .
We <i>would</i> advise this (we should wish to advise this, if our opinion were asked).	Subjunctive past of <i>will</i> .
<i>Would</i> that he were here.	Subjunctive past of <i>will</i> .

(In this last case, *would* is practically equivalent to *I wish*, but it is subjunctive in both form and origin.)

144. Examine the uses of *may*, *can*, *must*, *ought* in the following sentences:

I <i>can</i> go to-day. I <i>could</i> go yesterday.	Indicative uses of the italicised verbs.
I <i>may</i> go this afternoon (am permitted).	
It <i>may</i> rain (it is possible that it will rain).	
I said he <i>might</i> go (was permitted).	
You <i>must</i> help us.	Subjunctive uses of the italicised verbs.
They <i>ought</i> to do their duty.	
I should assist, if I <i>could</i> (were able).	
<i>May</i> he <i>be</i> successful.	
He does this that he <i>may</i> win.	

I wished that he *might* succeed.

If they were to come, you *ought* to help them (it would be your duty).

EXERCISE 87

Classify each italicised verb as principal or auxiliary. Also give its mood, tense, and special use, or meaning.

1. If I *should* do this, they *would* rejoice.
2. If he *should* be willing, we *should* go at once.
3. If he *would* only call the doctor, he *might* recover.
4. If he *would* be a candidate, I *would* vote for him in spite of your threats.
5. Even though it *may* be old, it will serve our purpose.
6. Jane *would* study grammar by the hour.
7. Bob *should* study grammar by the week.
8. *Would* that he had reached the ship!
9. It *may* be fine to-morrow.
10. He worked hard that he *might* have a good garden.
11. He told us that he *would* come before night.
12. You *may* open the window.
13. You *ought* to know the subjunctive mood now.

14. *May* all your efforts to forget it fail!
15. I answered that *I should* be glad to accept the offer.
16. He *might* have been seen in the park any day.
17. We *must* keep Canada a free country.
18. We *might* have had the candy then.
19. It *would* be a sad blow, if you *should* fail in grammar.
20. If I *should* find them working, I *should* be glad.

EXERCISE 88

(a) Compose sentences to illustrate the following uses of *should*. In each case tell whether it is a principal or an auxiliary verb. Name its mood, tense and person.

1. In a conditional clause.
2. In a conclusional clause { (a) in the first person.
(b) in the third person.
3. In a past future tense.
4. Denoting duty.
5. In a clause of concession.

(b) Compose sentences illustrating the following uses of *would*. Give the same information as was asked for in the case of *should* in (a).

1. In a conditional clause.
When is it used in this way? What idea must be present?
2. In a conclusional clause { (a) in the first person.
(b) in the third person.
3. Expressing persistent or repeated action.
4. Denoting wish.

(c) Compose sentences illustrating the following uses of *may*.

1. Expressing a wish.
2. Expressing possibility.
3. In a clause of purpose.
4. Expressing permission.

EXERCISE 89

In the following sentences select each verb in the subjunctive mood. Name its tense, and describe its use.

1. Thus, Night, oft see me in thy pale career
Till civil-suited Morn appear.

MILTON, *Il Penseroso*.

2. Could Nature's bounty satisfy the breast,
The sons of Italy were surely blest.

GOLDSMITH, *The Traveller*.

3. Should he find me in the glen,
My blood would stain the heather.

CAMPBELL, *Lord Ullin's Daughter*.

4. Bright star ! would I were steadfast as thou art.

Keats.

5. If a man were called to fix the period in the history of the world, during which the condition of the human race was most happy and prosperous, he would, without hesitation, name that which elapsed from the death of Domitian to the accession of Commodus.—GIBBON, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*:

6. If they had not so basely surprised me, they should not have had so easy a prize.—EVELYN, *Diary*.

7. At length the Mayor broke silence ;
“ For a guilder I’d my ermine gown sell,
I wish I were a mile hence ! ”

BROWNING, *The Pied Piper of Hamelin*.

8. “ For there was never champion yet,
In Scotland or in France,
That ever did on horseback come,
But if my hap it were,
I durst encounter man for man,
And with him break a spear.”

The Ballad of Chevy Chace.

9. Should I live a thousand years,
I shall not find myself so fit to die.

SHAKESPEARE, *Julius Cæsar*.

10. If there were dreams to sell,
Merry and sad to tell,
And the crier rang the bell,
What would you buy ?

BEDDOES, *Dream-Pedlary*

11. Angels and ministers of grace defend us !

SHAKESPEARE, *Hamlet*.

12. If I were out of prison and kept sheep,
I should be merry as the day is long ;
And so I would be here, but that I doubt
My uncle practises more harm to me.

SHAKESPEARE, *King John*.

13. Methinks nobody should be sad but I.

SHAKESPEARE, *King John*.

14. A farthing’s worth of mussels, a farthing’s worth of cockles, were a feast for them on Friday or fast-days.—LANG-LAND, *Piers Plowman*.

15. Thought would destroy their paradise.

GRAY, *On a Distant Prospect of Eton College*.

16. “ Ruin seize thee, ruthless King
Confusion on thy banners wait.”

GRAY, *The Bard*.

17. Some men with swords may reap the field,
And plant fresh laurels where they kill :
But their strong nerves at last must yield ;
They tame but one another still.

SHIRLEY, *Death the Leveller*.

18. Should auld acquaintance be forgot,
And never brought to min' ?
BURNS, *The Goal of Life.*
19. Said John, " It is my wedding day,
And all the world would stare,
If wife should dine at Edmonton,
And I should dine at Ware."
COWPER, *John Gilpin.*
20. Now let us sing long live the King,
And Gilpin, long live he ;
And when he next doth ride abroad,
May I be there to see !
COWPER, *John Gilpin.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD

145. The IMPERATIVE MOOD is used in commands, exhortations, and entreaties.

Go at once. *Do* your best, my friend. *Do help* us in this difficulty.

1. The imperative has one tense—the PRESENT, one person—the SECOND, and only ONE FORM for singular and plural.

PRESENT TENSE			
Ordinary		Emphatic	
Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
Give	Give	Do give	Do give

2. The subject of a verb in the imperative mood is usually, but not always, omitted.

My son, if sinners entice thee, consent thou not.—Proverbs i. 10.

3. There are several other ways of expressing commands, exhortations and entreaties.

(a) By *let* phrases in the first and second persons.

Let us help them to-day. (Exhortation.)
Do let us help them to-day. (Entreaty.)
Let him advance at once. (Command.)

The *let* phrase might be called an imperative verb phrase. If *let* is taken by itself, however, it is a

weakened imperative, and *help* or *advance* is an infinitive.

(b) By the use of *will* and *shall*, in the second and third persons.

You *will* leave at once. (Command.)

You *will* please *do* it at once. (Entreaty.)

Thou *shall* not steal. (Command.)

EXERCISE 90

Name the mood and tense of each italicised verb in the following sentences. In the case of each subjunctive, explain why the verb is in the subjunctive mood.

1. My son, if sinners entice thee, *consent* thou not.—Proverbs, i. 10.

2. Whatsoever thy hand *findeth* to do, *do* it with thy might.—Ecclesiastes ix. 10.

3. John, if my brother *should ask* you where we are, *tell* him we *have gone* to town.

4. If the teacher *were* here now, we *should have* a pleasant lesson.

5. *Let us do* all we can to relieve the famine in India.

6. Mary, *go* and *call* the cattle home.

7. *Break, break, break,*

On thy cold grey stones, O Sea !

And I *would* that my tongue *could* utter
The thoughts that arise in me.

TENNYSON.

8. God *prosper* long our noble king,
Our lives and safeties all !

The Ballad of Chevy Chace.

9. But if I *thought* he *would* not *come*,
No longer *would* I stay.

The Ballad of Chevy Chace.

10. *Get up*, sweet slug-a-bed, and *see*
The dew-bespangled herb and tree !

HERRICK, *Going a-Maying.*

11. *Come, let us go*, while we are in our prime,
And *take* the harmless folly of the time !

HERRICK, *Going a-Maying.*

12. Come *fill* up my cup, come *fill* up my can,
Come *saddle* your horses, and call up your men ;
Come open the West Port, and *let us gang* (go) free,
And it's room for the bonnets of Bonny Dundee.

SCOTT, *Bonny Dundee.*

13. *Arm, arm, arm, arm ! The scouts are all come in ;
Keep your ranks close, and now your honours win.
Behold from yonder hill the foe appears ;
Bows, bills, glaives, arrows, shields, and spears.*

J. FLETCHER, *The Joy of Battle.*

14. Then *let* him which is on the house-top not *come* down to take anything out of his house.—Matthew xxiv. 17.

15. Then *turn* your forces from this paltry siege
And stir them up against a mightier task.

SHAKESPEARE, *King John.*

EXERCISE 91

In the following sentences fill in each blank with *shall* or *will*. Give a reason for your choice in each case.

1. —— we sound him ? I think he —— stand with us.
SHAKESPEARE, *Julius Cæsar.*

2. If I do not study, I —— fail.

3. The officers —— kindly report at noon.

4. How —— I answer ?

5. The chase is up, but they —— know
The stag at bay's a dangerous foe.

SCOTT, *Lady of the Lake.*

6. I fear he —— find them out.

7. You —— see to this at once.

8. Since you —— it, he —— do it.

9. Students —— please enter by the side door.

10. We are determined that you —— come.

11. I —— speak, and the word that I —— speak —— be performed.

12. I guarantee that they —— go.

13. —— I bring my books into the class-room ?

14. I —— make of thee a great nation, and in thee —— all the families of the earth be blest.

15. Be angry when you ——, it —— have scope.

SHAKESPEARE, *Julius Cæsar.*

16. —— I descend, and —— you give me leave ?

SHAKESPEARE, *Julius Cæsar.*

17. If that is the train, I fear we —— miss it.

18. I —— not have you doubt my word.

19. Ask the teacher how the pupils —— plant these seeds.

20. —— I meet you there this evening ?

21. Thou —— not kill.

22. You —— kindly notify the others.

23. He —— do so if he is asked.

24. I have made up my mind that you —— be there.

25. Not as a child —— we again behold her ;
 For when with raptures wild
 In our embraces we again enfold her,
 She —— not be a child.

LONGFELLOW, *Resignation*.

26. I —— not yield to kiss the ground before young Malcolm's feet.—SHAKESPEARE, *Macbeth*.

V. THE PASSIVE VOICE

146. Transitive verbs have two voices, the ACTIVE and the PASSIVE. The active voice is the form of the verb used when the subject represents the doer of an action. The passive voice is the form of the verb used when the subject represents the object of an action.

1. That man *leads* his horse to drink. (Active.)
2. The horse *is led* to drink by that man. (Passive.)
3. Our friends *have assisted* us much. (Active.)
4. We *have been assisted* much by our friends. (Passive.)
5. Roy *gave* his friends much advice. (Active.)
6. The friends *were given* much advice by Roy. (Passive.)
7. The villain *struck* me a blow. (Active.)
8. I *was struck* a blow by the villain. (Passive.)

Usually the direct object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive, as in the first two pairs of sentences above; but sometimes we quite illogically make the indirect object of the active verb the subject of the passive verb, as in sentences 5 and 6. In such cases, the direct object of the active verb becomes a retained object in the passive sentence. When the active verb has two direct objects, as in No. 7, the one object becomes the subject of the passive verb, while the other becomes a retained object. (See section 59.)

147. The passive voice of a verb is formed by means of verb phrases each of which consists of some form of the auxiliary *be* together with the past participle of the principal verb. The following are the tense-forms for the verb *give*.

PASSIVE VOICE

INDICATIVE MOOD

PRESENT

Ordinary
I am given
Thou art given
He is given

We are given
You are given
They are given

Progressive
I am being given
Thou art being given
He is being given

We are being given
You are being given
They are being given

PRESENT PERFECT

Singular
I have been given
Thou hast been given
He has been given

Plural
We have been given
You have been given
They have been given

PAST

Ordinary
I was given
Thou wast given
He was given

We were given
You were given
They were given

Progressive
I was being given
Thou wast being given
He was being given

We were being given
You were being given
They were being given

PAST PERFECT

Singular
I had been given
Thou hadst been given
He had been given

Plural
We had been given
You had been given
They had been given

FUTURE

Singular
I shall be given
Thou wilt be given
He will be given

Plural
We shall be given
You will be given
They will be given

FUTURE PERFECT

Singular
I shall have been given
Thou wilt have been given
He will have been given

Plural
We shall have been given
You will have been given
They will have been given

PAST FUTURE

Singular	Plural
I should be given	We should be given
Thou wouldest be given	You would be given
He would be given	They would be given

PAST FUTURE PERFECT

Singular	Plural
I should have been given	We should have been given
Thou wouldest have been given	You would have been given
He would have been given	They would have been given

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

PRESENT

I be given	I may be given
Thou be (beest) given	Thou may(e)st be given
He be given	He may be given
We be given	We may be given
You be given	You may be given
They be given	They may be given

PRESENT PERFECT

I may have been given
Thou may(e)st have been given
He may have been given
We may have been given
You may have been given
They may have been given

PAST

I were given	I were being given
Thou wert (were) given	Thou wert (were) being given
He were given	He were being given
We were given	We were being given
You were given	You were being given
They were given	They were being given

I might be given	I should be given
Thou mightst be given	Thou shouldst (wouldest) be given
He might be given	He should (would) be given
We might be given	We should be given
You might be given	You should (would) be given
They might be given	They should (would) be given

PAST PERFECT

I had been given	I might have been given
Thou hadst been given	Thou mightst have been given
He had been given	He might have been given
We had been given	We might have been given
You had been given	You might have been given
They had been given	They might have been given

I should have been given
Thou shouldst (wouldst) have been given
He should (would) have been given
We should have been given
You should (would) have been given
They should (would) have been given

IMPERATIVE MOOD

Ordinary	Emphatic
Singular and Plural	Singular and Plural
Be given	Do be given

148. Intransitive verbs cannot, from their very nature, have a passive voice. Their one voice-form is called active. Except in special cases, however, it is not necessary to define the voice of intransitive verbs.

EXERCISE 92

Name the tense, mood, and voice of each italicised verb in the following sentences :

1. If he *should be sent* away, he *would be missed* by us all.
2. Men say that he *will be stripped* of his cowl and cope.—SCOTT, *Ivanhoe*.
3. That, now, is one of the questions that *are more easily asked* than answered.
4. God's will *be done*.
5. I *am bound* to have vengeance.
6. His commands *were obeyed*.
7. Everything *has been done* in due form.
8. Bennie *will be sent* to the kitchen, that he *may not be seen* by the callers.
9. Had the war *not been won*, civilisation *would have been crushed*.
10. The Germans *were summoned* to Paris to hear the terms of the Peace Treaty.
11. If the book *were completed*, it *would be published* immediately.
12. Bill went to school gladly, that he *might learn* grammar.

13. If this work were being done for us free of charge, we should be envied by our neighbours.
14. Many demands are being made upon Canadians in these trying days.
15. Lloyd George's speech will have been published in a few hours.
16. Wages were being paid to each man according to his skill.
17. The boy had been asked many questions by his teacher.
18. As the ship has been reported, the soldiers will soon arrive.
19. Would that he had been set free before this!
20. Even if I should be given my freedom, I would not betray my friends.
21. He told his followers that he would not be given an office.
22. If he be praised by us, he will be blamed by them.
23. I thought that I should be seen by the guards when I was climbing the wall.
24. He had been offered a bribe, that he might keep silent.
25. If he should have been reported to be guilty, I should not have been surprised by the news.
26. May you be honoured as you deserve!
27. Were he being questioned now, the truth would be discovered.
28. Let us leave this spot lest we be seen by the enemy.
29. Dumnorix professed to believe that he would be murdered by Caesar.

EXERCISE 93

Change each of the following sentences from the active to the passive:

1. My father did not observe my dissatisfaction.
- (1) 2. I shall long remember that dinner-party.
3. I see his drift.
4. You do not understand even this beggarly trade.—
SCOTT, Rob Roy.
5. Remote from towns he ran his godly race.
GOLDSMITH, The Deserted Village.
- (2) 6. Had he warned us of the danger, we should not have crossed the bridge.
7. " My sister, and my sister's child,
 Myself and children three,
 Will fill the chaise." *COWPER, John Gilpin.*
- (3) 8. Send us help as soon as possible.
9. I must finish my journey alone.
COWPER, Alexander Selkirk.
10. Oft I had heard of Lucy Gray.
WORDSWORTH, Lucy Gray.
11. I shall write you a letter next week.

The waiter will fill all the glasses at the
Such a complicated problem is not
such a simple problem.

EXERCISE 94

Explain the use of *may*, *might*, *should* and *would* in the following sentences. Tell whether each is a principal or an auxiliary verb, and give its tense and mood.

1. Then, God grant me too
Thou mayst be damnèd for that wicked deed.
SHAKESPEARE, *King Richard III.*
2. Were you well served, you would be taught your duty.
SHAKESPEARE, *King Richard III.*
3. We come to have the warrant,
That we may be admitted where he is.
SHAKESPEARE, *King Richard III.*
4. This day should Clarence closely be mew'd up (im-prisoned).—SHAKESPEARE, *King Richard III.*
5. Had you been born some years earlier, your scorn, your satire, your narrative verse would have not been known.—A. LANG, *Letters to Dead Authors.*
6. If you have any evidence to set forth that you may be relieved from the burden of these accusations, now is the time.—A. LANG, *Letters to Dead Authors.*
7. If he should be summoned to court, he would be disgraced in our eyes.
8. If he would only be advised, he would be considered a wiser man.
9. May they all be forgiven this deed !
10. If the teacher is ill, the school may be closed this afternoon.
11. Would that they were all gathered at the old home!
12. I explained to him that the exercise would be done by that class.
13. He hurried down the road, that he might not be overtaken by the storm.
14. He may be elected, for he is a very popular candidate.
15. If I should be seen, I should be pursued by the enemy.
16. Even if he should be censured by some, I would not be found among his critics.
17. Each pupil should pay close attention to the difficulties of the subjunctive mood.

VI. NON-MODAL FORMS

149. There are certain forms of the verb which do not express any mood-idea, *i.e.*, they are the same whether the speaker is expressing a mere conception, a command, or what he represents as a fact. **The ordinary active non-modal forms for the verb *give* are as follows:**

	INFINITIVE	GERUND	PARTICIPLE
Present :	(to) give	giving	giving
Past :	(to) have given	having given	having given

It will be noticed that each of these non-modal forms makes a distinction between present and past time, but no distinctions for either person or number.

THE INFINITIVE

150. The various infinitive forms of the verb *give* are as follows:

	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
	Ordinary	Progressive
Pres. :	(to) give	(to) be giving
Past :	(to) have given	(to) have been given

151. The infinitive is a verbal substantive, *i.e.*, it partakes of the nature of both the verb and the substantive. For instance, in the following sentence :

Healthy boys like *to swim*.

the infinitive *to swim* not only expresses the action of swimming, but is, at the same time, the object of the verb *like*.

The following sentences illustrate the substantive uses of the infinitive :

Subject : *To err* is human, *to forgive* divine.—POPE.

Nom. absolute : *To work* further with him being impossible, we retired.

Predicate nom. : Our chief desire is *to help* our friends.

Exclamation : Oh, *to be* in England now that April's there!—BROWNING.

Direct Object : The nations desire *to make* peace.

I taught him *to read* and *to write*.

There is nothing left but *to assist* him.

Retained object : He was taught *to read* and *write*.

Appositive : The main purpose of this meeting, *to protest* against this law, has been fulfilled.

EXERCISE 95

Select the infinitives in the following sentences, and explain the syntax of each.

1. Britain had promised to defend Belgium.
2. To retreat being difficult, we decided to await reinforcements.
3. The wish of all true patriots is to have peace with honour.
4. Some politicians have only one idea, to oppose the other party.
5. They desire to be made partners in the firm.
6. Healthy boys like to be doing something.
7. To be elected to Parliament is rightly regarded as an honour.
8. Be thine Despair and sceptred Care,
To triumph and to die are mine.
GRAY, *The Bard*.
9. The Wedding-Guest sat on a stone ;
He cannot choose but hear.
COLERIDGE, *The Ancient Mariner*.
10. Will't please you sit and look at her.
BROWNING, *My Last Duchess*.
11. Whilst he lived, it was his custom to provide for the poor and infirm, and to bestow alms on them, and assist them.—
BEDE, *Ecclesiastical History of England*.
12. That night he thought proper to forget even to shake hands with me, but left the room in silence.—C. BRONTË,
Jane Eyre.
13. And the bride-maidens whisper'd, “ ‘Twere better by far
To have matched our fair cousin with Young Lochinvar.”
SCOTT, *Lochinvar*.
14. The lights begin to twinkle from the rocks.
TENNYSON, *Ulysses*.
15. How dull it is to pause, to make an end !
TENNYSON, *Ulysses*.

152. OTHER USES OF THE INFINITIVE. Besides its very common use as a substantive, the infinitive has three others.

(a) Adjectival use.

This boy is *to be admired*.

There are many houses *to rent* on this street.

The work *to be done* here is very important.

(b) Adverbial uses.

1. He is competent *to do* anything you please.
2. This is not easy *to do*.
3. *To make* this clear, I shall give examples.

4. He was so simple as *to believe* the story.
5. Mary was distressed *to hear* of her friend's illness.
6. *To hear* him, you would think him a saint.

In the first sentence of (b), *to do* modifies *competent*; in the second it modifies *easy*. In No. 3 the infinitive modifies *shall give*, and expresses purpose, as an adverbial clause might do. In sentence 4 the whole phrase *as to believe the story* modifies *simple*. The exact force of the infinitive is more readily seen, when the ellipsis is filled out thus:

He was so simple, as he would be simple, to believe the story.

The infinitive in this fuller sentence modifies *would be simple*. In No. 5 the infinitive *to hear* modifies *was distressed*, and in No. 6 it modifies *would think*.¹

(c) Predicative use.

I believe him *to be* my friend.

They saw him *carry* a load.

The papers declared him *to have been killed*.

In each of these cases the infinitive is the predicate verb of a clause. Notice that in each case the subject of the infinitive is in the accusative case, and that in the first sentence the predicate noun is likewise in the accusative.

153. SPECIAL CASES.

I. With the verbs *will* (*would*), *shall* (*should*), *can* (*could*), *may* (*might*), *must*, and *ought*, when used as principal verbs, the infinitive following is a direct object.

I will *do* it to-day.

You should (*ought to*) *help* them.

Can they *succeed*?

They could *succeed*, if they would *try*.

You ought *to go*, and we must *go*.

He may *go* at noon.

¹ The examples in (b) are taken from the Report of the (American) Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature. Any teacher wishing to classify these adverbial uses of the infinitive, should consult that Report, p. 35.

When *may*, *will*, and *shall* are used as auxiliaries, the infinitive is simply part of a tense.

I shall go. You *will go.* He *will go.* Future tense of *go*.
If they should try, they would succeed. Past subjunctive tenses.
May he be very successful. Pres. subjunctive of *be*.

2. Many apparently difficult cases of the infinitive are easily explained after ellipses have been filled out.

He knows not when (he ought) *to go*.

Make up your mind which (you ought, or you wish) *to take*.

You must act so as (one acts) *to win* approbation.

He is such a fool as (he would be) *to believe* the story.

3. Sometimes an infinitive phrase used adverbially modifies the whole sentence, rather than one word in it.

To tell the truth, I am wrong. *To be sure*, he is a young man.

EXERCISE 96

Explain the use of each infinitive in the following sentences.

1. I will have my own way.

2. And every soul cried out, " Well done ! "
As loud as he could bawl.

COWPER, *John Gilpin*.

3. Then might all people well discern
The bottles he had slung.

COWPER, *John Gilpin*.

4. Francis had mentioned Horncastle as a place where the horse was likely to find a purchaser.—BORROW, *Romany Rye*.

5. " Have you any relations ? " said the landlord. " Excuse me, but I don't think you are exactly fit to take care of yourself." " There you are mistaken," said I. " I can take precious good care of myself."—BORROW, *Romany Rye*.

6. In yonder village there dwells a gentleman, that has skill to help men off with such burdens as thine.—BUNYAN, *Pilgrim's Progress*.

7. The Duke ordered all the roads, especially those that Don Quixote was most likely to take, to be watched by his servants, who had orders to bring him to the castle, right or wrong.—CERVANTES, *Don Quixote*.

8. For Witherington needs must I wayle,
As one in doleful dumpes.

The Ballad of Chevy Chace.

9. Tongues I'll hang on every tree.

SHAKESPEARE, *As You Like It*.

10. Why should that name be sounded more than yours ?

SHAKESPEARE, *Julius Cæsar*.

11. *Calphurnia.* Think you to walk forth ?
You shall not stir out of your house to-day.
Cæsar. Cæsar shall forth.

SHAKESPEARE, *Julius Cæsar.*

12. There likewise stands a modern statue of Hercules, not to be despised.—EVELYN, *Diary.*

13. I still had hopes—for pride attends us still—
Amidst the swains to show my book-learn'd skill.

GOLDSMITH, *The Deserted Village.*

14. Unpractis'd he to fawn, or seek for power,
By doctrines fashion'd to the varying hour ;
Far other aims his heart had learn'd to prize,
More skill'd to raise the wretched than to rise.

GOLDSMITH, *The Deserted Village.*

15. Grow old along with me !
The best is yet to be.

BROWNING, *Rabbi Ben Ezra.*

16. Thou shalt not covet thy neighbour's house.

17. I sent you a parcel of books to give you some idea of the state of European literature.—C. LAMB, *Letters.*

18. We may conceive mankind to have been launched into the universe with no knowledge of themselves.—FROUDE, *Essay on the Book of Job.*

19. It had been strange, even in a dream,
To have seen those dead men rise.

COLERIDGE, *The Ancient Mariner.*

20. To see the townfolk suffer so,
From vermin, was a pity.

BROWNING, *The Pied Piper of Hamelin.*

21. I delivered him that had none to help him.—Job xxix. 12.

22. I am monarch of all I survey,
My right there is none to dispute.

COWPER, *Alexander Selkirk.*

THE GERUND

154. The forms of the gerund of the verbs *give* and *help* are as follows:

	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
	Ordinary	Progressive
Pres.	giving	— being given
Past	having given	having been given
Pres.	helping	— being helped
Past	having helped	having been helped

1. The gerund is a verbal substantive, and is used in a number of the usual case-constructions of the substantive.

- Subject : *Playing and working* are both profitable.
 Your *having given* satisfaction is a very important point.
- Nom. abs. : Further *working* with him being impossible, we retired.
- Pred. nom. : Seeing is *believing*.
- Direct obj. : Most boys like *being praised*.
 Are you thinking of *retiring* early.
 They are pleased with *having been promoted*.
- Ret. obj. : He was taught *reading* and *writing*.

2. The gerund is sometimes used adverbially, as are other substantives.

This book is not worth *reading*.

He went *hunting*.

They will go *fishing*.

The gerund, in the construction represented by the last two sentences, was formerly the object of a preposition which has now disappeared. We still say, sometimes, "He went a-fishing." In such a sentence, the *a-* is a weakened preposition.

3. It should be noted that the gerund shades off into the ordinary noun in *-ing*, which is verbal in origin, but has ceased to have any verbal force.

His *warning* was very impressive.

Manufacturing and *farming* are important.

4. The present forms of the gerund are sometimes used with past force.

I am satisfied with his *giving* (having given) his time.

Are you content with his *being punished* (having been punished).

THE PARTICIPLE

155. The various participial forms of the verbs *give* and *help* are as follows :

	ACTIVE		PASSIVE
	Ordinary	Progressive	
Pres.	giving	—	being given
Past	having given	having been giving	given having been given
Pres.	helping	—	being helped
Past	having helped	having been helping	helped having been helped

1. The participle¹ is a verbal adjective, i.e., it partakes of the nature of both the verb and the adjective. For instance, in the sentence,

The men, *having bidden* adieu to their friends, set out. the participle *having bidden* expresses the action of *bidding*, and also modifies the noun *men*.

2. Participles are used in all the various constructions of the adjective.

Adherent: The *burning* building will soon fall.

Predicate: The army is not *beaten*, but it is *discouraged*.

Appositive: The army, *having fought* well and courageously, was satisfied.

3. The forms of the present participle are sometimes used with past force.

The men, *putting on* their coats, left the house.

The men, *being insulted*, left the house.

Both the putting on of the coats and the insulting were complete before the men left the house.

156. As gerunds, participles, nouns, and adjectives all end in *-ing*, and as the gerund shades into the noun, and the participle into the adjective, the four must be carefully distinguished.

Gerund: He accomplished much by *talking*.

Noun: The *talking* of this man was quite effective.

Participle: *Talking* excitedly, he left the room.

Adjective: The *talking* machine is very valuable.

EXERCISE 97

Select the gerunds and participles in the following sentences, and explain the syntax of each.

1. Mr. Harvey was proud of having been elected president.

2. Having gone to school for a year, Jack was now in the second form.

—3. Having been appointed to this office, he decided to serve his supporters.

—4. My father was annoyed at having gone to this meeting.

—5. I see the horse trotting down the street.

¹ The term *participle* means "sharing," and came to be used as it is, because the participle shares the nature of the verb and that of the adjective.

6. The trotting horse is standing in this stall.
7. I had heard of his crossing the river.
8. Hannibal's crossing of the Alps was said to have been accomplished by the use of vinegar.
9. I am sure that business is the invention of the old Teazer, whose interference set Adam a-hoeing.—LAMB, *Letters*.
10. There is no injustice in restoring these valuable mineral lands to their rightful owners.—*Toronto Globe*.
11. Many barriers built by pride, prejudice, and misunderstanding have fallen in the past few years.—*Toronto Globe*.
12. Of making many books there is no end.—Eccles. xii. 12.
13. It is well you escaped being dashed in pieces by that mountain.—BUNYAN, *The Pilgrim's Progress*.
14. Sancho, being informed how ill his master was, and finding his niece all in tears, began to make wry faces, and fall a-crying.—CERVANTES, *Don Quixote*.
15. "Sir I love the company of young people; because, in the first place, I don't like to think myself growing old."—BOSWELL, *Life of Dr. Johnson*.
16. "When years come upon you, you will find that poring upon books will be but an irksome task.—BOSWELL, *Life of Dr. Johnson*.
17. The dead bodies of these martyrs, having been cast into the river by the Pagans, were carried up-stream almost forty miles.—BEDE, *Ecclesiastical History*.
18. Then (he is) the whining school boy, with his satchel
And shining morning face, creeping like snail
Unwillingly to school.

SHAKESPEARE, *As You Like It*.

EXERCISE 98

Select the infinitives, gerunds and participles in the following sentences, and explain the syntax of each.

1. We should pity the boy who has nothing to do.
2. Having arranged these matters, Cæsar came to the harbour with his legions.—CÆSAR, *Gallic War*.
3. You do well to spend the night, not in sleeping, but in watching and prayer.—BEDE, *Ecclesiastical History*.
4. I remained with them until it was dark, having entered into deep discourse with a celebrated rat-catcher, who communicated to me the secrets of his trade, saying, amongst other things, "When you see the rats pouring out of their holes, and running up my hands and arms, they are after the oils I carry about me."—BORROW, *Romany Rye*.
5. Mounting my horse, I made my way to town at a swinging trot.—BORROW, *Romany Rye*.
6. Her worth, being mounted on the wind,
Through all the world bears Rosalind.

SHAKESPEARE, *As You Like It*.

7. Roman Virgil, thou that singest
 Ilion's lofty temples robed in fire,
 Ilion falling, Rome arising,
 Wars, and filial faith, and Dido's pyre.
 TENNYSON, *To Virgil.*

8. On the next morning, having found them partially sober, he invited them to remove to La Presentation; "but as they had still something left in their bottles, I could get no answer till the following day."—PARKMAN, *Montcalm and Wolfe.*

9. My wife observed that rising too early would hurt her daughters' eyes, and that working after dinner would redden their noses.—GOLDSMITH, *The Vicar of Wakefield.*

10. We could have borne all this, had not a fortune-telling gypsy come to raise us into perfect sublimity.—GOLDSMITH, *The Vicar of Wakefield.*

11. "It wasn't very civil of you to sit down without being invited," said the March Hare.—CARROLL, *Alice in Wonderland.*

12. Altisidora, whom Don Quixote supposed to have been raised from the dead, entered the room, supporting herself with an ebony staff.—CERVANTES, *Don Quixote.*

13. We were glad to hear of his having recovered.

EXERCISE 99

Write out all the non-modal forms of the following verbs :
feed, make, take, look, ask, deal, hit, leave, paint, dress,
heave, steal, wear, draw, hold, throw, see, build, keep, sell, buy.

VII. AGREEMENT OF THE VERB WITH ITS SUBJECT

157. The verb agrees with its subject in person and number, but the meaning, rather than the form, of the subject determines this agreement. The following cases are examples of this general principle:

i. Where the subject is compound (section 13), the meaning is usually plural.

John and James were together. Anarchy and hunger threaten Russia.

(a) But when singular substantives are joined by *either...or*, or *neither...nor*, the meaning of the subject is singular.

*Neither wealth nor fame is necessary for happiness.
Either your advice or your presence will be sufficient.*

(b) Sometimes, when *and* joins two substantives, the meaning is still singular.

The *sum and substance* of the matter is this.

Flesh and blood hath not revealed it unto thee.—Matthew xvi. 17.

2. When the subject is a collective noun in the singular, the verb is singular, if we think of the individuals as forming one body ; but it is in the plural, if we have in mind the individuals of which the collection is formed.

The *crowd* is *advancing* rapidly.

The demoralised *crowd* are *fleeing* in all directions.

The committee is (are) of the opinion that you are right.

3. Occasionally the meaning is singular, even when an ordinary noun is used in the plural.

A thousand years is a long period in the life of a nation.

On the other hand, a number of nouns are plural in form, but regularly singular in meaning.

Mathematics (economics, physics, etc.) is an important study.

The *gallows* is still used in Ontario.

The word *pains*, in the sense of *care* or *effort*, is sometimes plural in meaning.

Great *pains* has (have) been taken by our friends to please us.

4. Words like *half*, *part*, *portion*, take singular or plural verbs according to the sense.

Half of the people *were* his friends.

Half of a melon *is* enough for me.

A third of the citizens *were* unfriendly.

This *part* of the machinery *costs* ten dollars.

5. When substantives connected by *either...or* or *neither...nor* differ in number or person, the verb usually agrees with the nearer.

Either you or he *is* unfriendly.

Neither the leader nor his followers *favor* this plan.

But such sentences are avoided by careful writers. These two sentences might better be worded thus :

Either you *are* unfriendly, or he *is*.

This plan *is* favoured by neither the leader nor his followers.

EXERCISE 100

Account for the number of each of the italicised verbs in the following sentences.

1. Bread and butter *does not suit* this young man.
 2. The carriage and team *was bought* by the same dealer.
 3. The jury *are* all old men.
 4. The jury *has brought* in a verdict.
 5. Neither the man nor his wife *is* willing to come.
 6. Not only Mary, but Dorothy, *goes* there often.
 7. That committee *has adjourned*.
 8. The committee *were* nearly all away, some in one place, others in another.
 9. Jim and I *have had* a long walk in the fields.
 10. The long and short of the matter *is* that he was very angry.
 11. *Has* either the doctor or the lawyer *been invited*.
 12. Every door and every window *was crowded* with spectators.
 13. Pharaoh, with his whole army, *was drowned* in the Red Sea.
 14. Neither the Mayor nor the Reeve *was* at the meeting.
 15. Either John or you *are* to be sent.
 16. A majority of the parents *were* willing to give the plan a trial.
 17. The majority in favour of the Union Government *was* very large.
 18. A garage as well as a storehouse *has been built* on the lot.
 19. The crew *is* not large enough to manage the ship.
 20. The crew *were* busy at different tasks.
 21. Why *is* dust and ashes proud ?
 22. God said in Heaven, " Nor day nor night
Now *brings* the voice of my delight."
- BROWNING, *The Boy and the Angel*.
23. The lowest boughs and the brushwood sheaf
Round the elm-tree bole *are* in tiny leaf.
BROWNING, *Home Thoughts from Abroad*.
 24. Here's the top-peak ; the multitude below
Live, for they can, there.
BROWNING, *A Grammarian's Funeral*.

EXERCISE 101

Fill each blank in the following sentences with the proper form of the verb *be*.

1. Neither honour nor virtue —— found in this wretch.
2. News —— sent to Canada that this battalion had sailed.
3. —— either of these houses for sale ?
4. The audience —— delighted with the singing of Mr. Francis.
5. The audience —— large.

6. Neither Dickens nor Thackeray — the author of *Jane Eyre*.
 7. A large quantity of butter and eggs — in the storehouse.
 8. Prices as well as style — to be considered.
 9. The committee — of opinion that the other members should carry out its recommendations.
 10. The black and the white horse — in the field.
 11. Every shrub and every flower — looking its best.
 12. The choir — nearly all in their places.
 13. Pancakes and maple syrup — a dish for the gods.
 14. None of the boys — in the room.
 15. *Twice-told Tales* — written by Nathaniel Hawthorne.
 16. A part of the cadets — drilling on the campus.
 17. More than one outbreak of disease — due to bad water.
 18. Neither Fred nor I — willing to take the office to-day.
 19. Three parts of him — ours already.
- SHAKESPEARE, *Julius Cæsar*.
20. Neither of the reports — quite correct.

158. COMPOUND VERBS. Each of these consists of an ordinary verb, together with one or more words loosely attached to it.

What *took place* when the ship *set sail* ?
 These unscrupulous men *did away with* their victims.
 He *as much as said* that he would help me.
 This man *was found out*, when he went to town.

Such compound verbs should not be analysed, even when it is easy to explain how they were formed.

159. PARSING OF VERBS. This should be made very simple. As a rule, it is quite sufficient to state the class, principal parts, voice, mood, tense, and relation of the verb. For instance, the italicised verbs in the following sentence would be parsed thus (see page 268):

May you be as happy as your friends have wished you to be.

May be: Verb, linking, *be, was, been*, subj., pres., subject *you*.

have wished: Verb, trans., *wish, wished, wished*, indic., pres. perf., subject *friends*.

to be: Verb, linking, *be, was, been*, infin., pres., subject *you*, the predicative use of the infin.

When a verb is intransitive and cannot, therefore, have a passive voice, all mention of voice should be omitted.

NOTE:—A summary of the verb, active and passive will be found in Appendix D.

EXERCISE 102

Parse the italicised words and phrases in the following sentences.

DENYS ON THE ROAD

The pair *were trudging* manfully on, and Denys *did* his full share to *enliven* the weary way. He chattered about battles and sieges, and *interesting* things which *were* new to Gerard ; and he was one of those who *can make* little incidents wherever they go. He passed nobody without addressing him. “ They *don’t understand* it, but it wakes them up,” said he. He doffed his cap to every woman, high or low, he *caught sight of*, and, *discerning* with eagle eye her best feature, he complimented her on it in his native tongue, well *adapted* to such matters ; and, at each crow or magpie, down came his cross-bow, and he would *go* a furlong off the road to *circumvent* it ; and indeed he *did shoot* one old crow with laudable neatness and despatch, and, *having carried* it to the nearest hen-roost, slipped in, and set it upon a nest. “ The good wife *will say*, ‘ Alack ! here *is* Beelzebub *hatching* my eggs.’ ”—C. READE, *The Cloister and the Hearth*.

KING JOHN DESIRES THE DEATH OF ARTHUR

King John (addressing Hubert) :

Good friend, thou *hast* no cause to *say* so yet,
But thou *shall have* ; and *creep* time ne’er so slow,
Yet it *shall come* for me to *do* thee good.
I had a thing to *say*, but *let it go* ;
The sun *is* in the heaven, and the proud day,
Attended with the pleasures of the world,
Is all too wanton and too full of gawds (trifling ornaments)
To give me audience: If the midnight bell
Did, with his iron tongue and brazen mouth,
Sound on into the drowsy ear of night ;
If this same *were* a churchyard where we *stand*,
And thou *possessed* with a thousand wrongs ;
Or if that surly spirit, melancholy,
Had baked thy blood and *made* it heavy-thick,
Which else runs *tickling* up and down the veins,
Making that idiot, laughter, *keep* men’s eyes
And strain their cheeks to idle merriment,
A passion hateful to my purposes ;
Or if that thou *couldst see* me without eyes,
Hear me without thine ears, and *make reply*
Without a tongue, *using* conceit (thought) alone,
Then, in despite of brooded watchful day,
I would into thy bosom *pour* my thoughts ;
But, ah, I *will not* ! Yet I love thee well ;
And, by my troth, I think thou *lovest* me well.

SHAKESPEARE, *King John*.

CHAPTER VI

THE ADVERB

160. An ADVERB is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

161. Adverbs are classified according to meaning, as adverbs of place, time, manner, cause, and degree, and modal adverbs. The adverbs of this last class are so called, because they show the mode or manner in which the speaker regards the thought. It should be remembered that some adverbs are used in different senses, and so may belong to more than one class.

The following words are examples of the six classes :

- 1. *Place* : here, there, where, yonder, down, up.
- 2. *Time* : then, when, now, soon, formerly.
- 3. *Manner* : how, so, as, eagerly, swiftly.
- 4. *Cause* : why, hence, therefore, accordingly.
- 5. *Degree* : as, much, little, greatly, scarcely.
- 6. *Modal* : surely, certainly, indeed, not, hardly, scarcely, perhaps, possibly, probably.

162. Other adverbial ideas, like concession, condition, purpose, and result, are usually expressed by phrases and clauses.

If you finish your work, he will pay you. (Condition.)

Even so, you are foolish to complain. (Concession.)

Your friends have come to cheer you up. (Purpose.)

Our friends fought so hard that they were successful. (Result.)

163. SENTENCE ADVERBS. Many of the modal adverbs seem to modify the whole sentence, rather than any one word in the sentence, and so are called sentence adverbs.

Possibly our friends will come.

You are certainly friendly.

We shall probably see him in the city.

Such adverbs really modify the predication expressed by the verb, as in the first sentence, or by the verb and a complement, as in the second sentence. This is readily shown by altering the first sentence thus :

Our friends *may come* to-morrow.

The possibility is now expressed by the verb.

Modal phrases are used in the same way.

In all probability, they will be here at noon.

Without doubt, you are right.

He is, *I fear*, very unprincipled.

The last example is a clause in form, but a phrase in use. One kind of sentence adverb really adds to the meaning of the sentence, without in any sense limiting it.

Unfortunately the pipe has broken.

To our chagrin, he failed in his attempt.

EXERCISE 103

Classify the adverbs and adverbial phrases in the following sentences, and explain the function of each.

1. We are writing now about the beginnings of our English Literature.
2. Possibly there is only one boy in the class who does not like literature.
3. He is the lad who most needs that study, that his mind may be fully trained.
4. Perhaps very few pupils ever ask this question: "How do people living now learn about the times of the Anglo-Saxons?"
5. The boy with the bright eyes answers quickly: "We can easily read about them in a History."
6. But how did the man who wrote the History learn these facts?
7. Without doubt, a really good historian has read the books written in those ancient times.
8. To be sure, there are other ways of learning about the past, but this method must be used.
9. We know, therefore, that our historian often reads those old books.
10. If the historian were here, he might tell you of Cædmon, who has been called quite fittingly the "father of English song."
11. Do not forget that the word "song," as it is used here, means poetry.
12. We never sing prose selections.
13. Cædmon was a servant at a monastery, where in a vision a figure bade him sing.

14. "I cannot sing," he replied; "I came to my cell from the feasting in the hall because I cannot sing."

15. At once the figure answered: "It is to me you should sing: Sing the origin of created things."

16. Immediately he began to sing of the creation of the world, and other Bible stories.

17. Though the vision was present no longer, he was inspired still to write on these great subjects.

18. Perhaps your teacher will be kind enough to remind you of a very great English poet who wrote on these themes.

19. What we know about Cædmon has been told us by Bede, of whom we may speak later.

164. COMPARISON OF ADVERBS. Like adjectives, many adverbs are compared.

1. A few adverbs add *-er* and *-est* to form the comparative and superlative:

fast, faster, fastest; near, nearer, nearest; soon, sooner, soonest.

2. Most adverbs are compared by means of *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*:

gaily, more gaily, most gaily; sadly, more sadly, most sadly.

quickly, less quickly, least quickly; slowly, less slowly, least slowly.

3. A few adverbs are irregular in comparison:

nigh,	nigher,	nighest	much,	more,	most
		next	little,	less,	least
ill (badly),	worse,	worst	far,	farther,	farthest
well,	better,	best		further,	furthest
late,	later,	latest	(rath: obs. adj.),	rather,	—
		last			

EXERCISE 104

Exercise 104
Write sentences using either the comparative or the superlative of each of the following adverbs:

softly, quickly, slowly, soberly, well, little, swiftly, rarely,
late, far, cheerfully, badly, nigh, clearly, fully, rapidly, early,
soon, gladly, suddenly. *easily*

165. DIFFICULT CASES:

1. The same word is sometimes used as more than one part of speech.

He came *down*.

Adverb.

He came *down* the stairs.

Preposition.

<i>When</i> will you do this work ?	Adverb.
I shall do it <i>when</i> he arrives.	Conjunction.
This is a <i>fast</i> train.	Adjective.
This train runs very <i>fast</i> .	Adverb.

2. Words ordinarily used as other parts of speech are sometimes used as adverbs.

My friend is <i>somewhat</i> annoyed with me.	Pronoun.
The politicians are <i>fighting</i> mad.	Participle.
<i>Tramp, tramp</i> the soldiers went.	Verb.
This house is a great <i>deal</i> better built than that.	Noun in adv. acc.

3. In each of the following sentences the adverb modifies the succeeding phrase or clause.

The aeroplane flew *right* over the town.
This occurred *long* after the war was over.

4. Adverbs and adverbial phrases sometimes appear to modify nouns.

Napoleon's defeat *on the morrow* seemed certain.
His stay *here* is likely to be long.

In reality the adverb or adverbial phrase modifies the verbal idea contained in the preceding noun.

John, *then* my friend, is now my enemy.

In this sentence *then* modifies *friend*, which is used adjectivally in apposition with *John*.

5. Some adverbial phrases may be readily analysed.

In the afternoon, he reached his destination.
In the front trenches, many a struggle took place.
Every now and then, they made a new attempt.
Ever and anon, a loud report was heard.

Other adverbial phrases are not easily broken up, because each consists of a preposition followed by a word which is ordinarily an adjective.

On high sat the dignitary. *In vain* they struggled.
They have gone *for good*. We shall not do it *at all*.
Still other phrases are the result of abbreviation.
Day by day they toiled together.

6. In certain cases, words like *up*, *down*, *away*, and *off* may be treated either as adverbs modifying verbs, or as parts of compound verbs.

Adverbial
Objective

His enemy carried *off* (*away*) the money.
 The houses have been built *up* again.
 The wharf was torn *down*.

The simpler and probably the better way is to say that the verbs in those sentences are *carry off* (*away*), *build up*, *tear down*.

EXERCISE 105

Classify the italicised words in the following sentences, and explain the function of each.

- (1) 1. The boy went *up* the ladder, and pulled *down* the flag.
2. Her visit *there* was *very* pleasant.
3. His arrival *there* was a great surprise.
4. The picture was taken *down* by my father.
5. The child went *right across* the street.
6. Bill, who does not fear work, took *in* the wood for his father.
7. The car is standing *in* the garage.
8. We went home *soon after* they came.
9. The house took fire *shortly after* dark.
10. I pulled *up* the blind, and saw the man walking *up* the street.
11. William Pitt, *then* Premier of England, carried *on* the war against Napoleon.
12. The British were victorious *on* the sea.
- (2) 13. The man was *somewhat older* than his wife.
14. She is an industrious woman, for she is making *over* these clothes.
15. Soon she will be standing *over* the fire, cooking for her sons.
16. *Long before* the game was *over*, we knew that you would win.
17. Although the battle was *long*, the right prevailed at last.
18. Few pennies came *in*,
And many mouths to eat the pennies *up*.
LANGLAND, Piers Plowman.
19. The voyage *hither* was uneventful.
20. The boat came *close beneath* the ship.
21. While we were *away*, the matter was looked *into*.
22. The bear walked *right into* the trap.

166. ADVERBIAL PARTICLES. (For the nature of the particle see section 33.)

I. The Expletive¹ Particle. The word *there* is sometimes

¹ *Expletive* is derived from the Latin verb *expleo*, *expletum*, to fill out, or fill up.

Compare with the use of *il* in such French sentences as:

Il y a beaucoup de garçons dans la classe.

used to fill up what would otherwise be a gap because of the transposition of the subject. In such cases it has none of its original adverbial force.

There are forty people who work there.
There is much business to-day.

The second *there* in the first sentence is, of course, an ordinary adverb.

2. **Other Particles.**¹ A few words like *even* resemble the adverb more than any other part of speech, and yet are used not only with verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, but with other parts of speech as well.

Even our enemies praise us. (Emphasises *our*.)
 Our enemies, *even*, praise us. (Emphasises *enemies*.)
 Our enemies *even* praise us. (Emphasises *praise*.)
 Our enemies praise us, *even*. (Emphasises *us*.)

Other words sometimes used in the same way are *only*, *just*, *merely*, *nearly*, *almost*.

Only a brave man would do that.
 A brave man *only* would do that.
 A brave man would *only* do that.
 A brave man would do that *only*.

EXERCISE 106

Classify the italicised words and phrases in the following sentences, and explain the syntax of each.

1. *There* is another early writer of whom we are going to say *just* a little.
2. Bede lived *somewhat later* than Cædmon, the "father of English Song."
3. *Early* in life he entered the monastery at Jarrow in northern England, and *there* he spent many quiet years.
4. He was *well* versed in *almost* all the subjects *then* known, Latin, Greek, astronomy, and he studied *even* medicine.
5. Although he wrote *only* in Latin, he is considered an English author.
6. *There* are many excellent translations of his "Ecclesiastical History of the English People."
7. *Perhaps even* the boy whose father is a clergyman does *not* know the meaning of "ecclesiastical."

¹ Some grammarians treat *even* and similar words as sentence adverbs (Sonnenschein, *A New English Grammar*, sections 136–37). Undoubtedly the constructions given in this section shade into others in which such words are ordinary adjectives or adverbs.

8. *Cheer up!* *there* is always the dictionary.
 9. *Even* from where you sit you can see it on the teacher's desk. Would it be advisable to go *there*?
 10. On this book (we do not refer to the dictionary) we depend *almost entirely* for our knowledge of English life before the times of Alfred the Great.
 11. *Even* some great writers have not been good men, but Bede won the respect and love of all.
 12. *There* is proof of this in the fact that he was called "The Venerable."
 13. *Even* in the weakness of his last illness he still persevered in his work.
 14. His pupil said, "Most dear Master, *there* is *only* one chapter wanting. Do you think it troublesome to be asked any more questions?"
 15. "It is no trouble," said Bede, "Take your pen, make ready, and write fast."
 16. A little later the pupil spoke once more, "Dear Master, *there* is *yet* one sentence *not* written."
 17. Then said the pupil, "The sentence is *now* written."
 18. The master replied, "It is *well*; you have said the truth—it is ended."
 19. *There* we have the story of the death of a good man.
- ARNOLD-FORSTER'S *History of England* (adapted).

167. FORMATION OF ADVERBS.

1. A few adverbs are primitive in our language: so, now, how.
2. Many words are used as both adjectives and adverbs without change of form: all, early, hard, long, late, deep, much, most.
3. Many adverbs are formed from adjectives and other parts of speech by means of suffixes, sometimes with slight changes in spelling:

*swiftly, truly, gaily, hastily, frantically,
likewise, lengthwise, sidewise.
headlong, sidelong, homeward, backwards.*

4. *The* in such constructions as,

The more the merrier.

The more he works, the more he accomplishes.

Note
is not an article, but an adverb meaning *by the amount* and *by that amount*. The second sentence could be paraphrased thus:

By the amount that he works more, by that amount he accomplishes more.

The adverb *the* is a fossilised instrumental form of the Old English article, expressing measure of difference. (Compare the use of the ablative case in Latin.)

5. The adverb *ago* is really an old past participle *agone*, which modified the noun with which it was used. Now it is an ordinary adverb. In the following sentence it modifies *arrived*, and is modified by the adverbial accusative *days*.

They arrived ten days *ago*.

6. There are many compound adverbs formed from independent words :

sideways, headforemost, knee-deep, indeed, forever.
herein, thereof, whereby, wherewith, therewith.

Each of the adverbs in the second line is equivalent in meaning to a preposition and a pronoun.

Herein (in this) lies our chance of success.

This is the means whereby (by which) I do it.

168. PARSING OF ADVERBS. The parsing of adverbs should be made a very simple matter indeed. It is quite sufficient, as a rule, to classify them, and explain their syntax. The adverb and the adverbial phrase in the sentence (see page 268) :

The man ran *swiftly*, *in the other direction*.

should be parsed as follows :

swiftly : Adv. of manner, mod. verb *ran*.

in the other direction : Adv. phrase of place, mod. verb *ran*.

EXERCISE 107

Parse the adverbs and the adverbial phrases in the following sentences, and explain, where you can, the formation of the adverbs.

1. Long ago we read for the first time one of Mark Twain's books.

2. The title was *Roughing It*. Even yet we remember the appearance of the volume.

3. The oftener we read his books, the more we enjoy them.

4. Surely you will agree with us that the boy who has not heard of Tom Sawyer and Huck Finn has a somewhat incomplete education.

5. Even though you like his books, do you know his name ?
6. Very many readers know only his pen name.
7. "Twain," of course, means two, and "Mark Twain" was a cry used in taking soundings on the Mississippi River.
8. There Samuel Clemens or "Mark Twain" was a pilot many years ago.
9. In his village there was but one permanent ambition among the boys.
10. As they lived right on the bank of the great river, they were all eager to be steamboatmen.
11. Every healthy boy, long before he even thinks of going to High School, has some ambition.
12. Long, long ago, the now writer of exercises intended to be a brakeman on a freight train.
13. Living close beside the railroad, he watched with admiration the brakeman strolling carelessly along the tops of the moving cars.
14. Apparently, the fewer brakemen there are, the more grammarians you have to put up with.
15. Mark says, "We boys had transient ambitions of other sorts, but they were only transient."
16. If there had been a circus in town, they all burned to become clowns.
17. Long after the minstrel show was over, they felt that no life was as grand as that of a comedian.
18. At times they hoped that they might be pirates.
19. Alas ! Even the greatest pleasures come to an end too soon.
- (S) — 20. This exercise is quite too long.

169. ADVERBIAL CLAUSES. As examples of all the nine classes of adverbial clauses were given in section 31, it will be necessary now to mention only a few more difficult constructions.

1. Clauses of degree.

This man is *as rich as Cræsus (was rich)*.

The faster you run, the more quickly you will reach the goal.

In the first sentence *rich* is modified by the adverb of degree, *as*, and the adverbial clause of degree, *as Cræsus (was rich)*.

In the second sentence the adverb *more quickly* is modified by the adverb *the* and the adverbial clause *the faster you run*.

2. Clauses of result.

This king was so foolish that he lost his throne.

The army was in such confusion that the commander fled.

In the first sentence *foolish* is modified by the adverb of degree, *so*, and the adverbial clause of result, *that he lost his throne*. In the second sentence the adverbial clause modifies the adjective *such*, which in turn modifies *confusion*.

3. Clauses of Condition. In addition to the more regular forms of the conditional sentence discussed in sections 138–39, the following less usual forms should be noted.

(a) Condition is sometimes expressed by an inverted order of words.

Hadst thou been there, my brother had not died.—
John xi. 21.

(b) The imperative clause is sometimes used to express condition.

But do your duty, the result will be happy.

(c) A few imperatives and participles may even be valued as conjunctions in conditional clauses.

Suppose your friend comes, what will you do ?
He may keep the suit, *provided* he pays for it.

EXERCISE 108

Classify the adverbial clauses in the following sentences, and explain the relation of each.

1. If you do not object, we shall return to Mark Twain.
2. When the preceding exercise came to an end, we were talking of piracy.
3. Although this is an interesting subject, we are forced to leave to your teacher the task of discussing it.
4. The boys of Mark's village often longed to hoist the Jolly Roger and sail the Spanish main, that they might return with a shipload of pieces-of-eight.
5. As Bill does not understand some of these expressions, the dark-haired girl who has read all the Elsie books will explain them.
6. Her answer clears up the difficulties so well that William feels certain that he knows enough to be a buccaneer.
7. "Alas!" complains William, "that last word is as hard as the others."
8. Sometimes Mark and his friends longed for this wild life, as many other boys have done.
9. But the desire to sail on the river-boats became so strong that it drove the other ideas from his mind.

10. This is not remarkable, because the arrival of the daily boat was the great event in the life of the village.

11. As Mark describes it: "The earlier part of each day was as glorious with expectancy as the later hours were dead and empty."

12. "Though many years have gone," he says, "I can picture that old time just as it was then."

13. On a bright summer forenoon business would be so quiet that the clerks had nothing to do but sit in front of the store sound asleep.

14. Were a stranger to wonder at their exhaustion, he would know the reason when he had glanced at the whittings which surrounded them.

15. A few pigs might be seen loafing along the sidewalk, where they did a good business in water-melon rinds and seeds.

16. But when a drayman, famous for his mighty voice, raised the cry, "S-t-e-a-m-boat a-comin'!" the scene changed.

17. As bees issue fiercely from the hive when an enemy approaches, or as ants rush wildly from their underground city, if it is disturbed by the gardener's hoe, so rushed the villagers from their houses, and a few minutes found them gathered on the wharf.

18. As the boat drew nearer, the people's eyes were fastened on it as if it were a wonder they were seeing for the first time.

19. As soon as the steamer touched the wharf, there was a mad scramble to get aboard and to get ashore, to take in freight and to discharge freight.

20. Twenty minutes later the town is as dead as it was before the drayman's shout roused the sleepers.

MARK TWAIN, *Life on the Mississippi* (adapted).

EXERCISE 109

Classify all the subordinate clauses in the following extract, and explain the relation of each.

MARK TWAIN'S BOYHOOD AMBITION

My father was a justice of the peace, and I supposed he possessed the power of life and death over all men and could hang anybody that offended him. Although this was distinction enough for me as a general thing, yet the desire to be a steamboatman kept intruding. First I wanted to be a cabin-boy, so that I could come out with a white apron on and shake a table-cloth over the side, where all my old comrades could see me; later I thought I should prefer to be the deck-hand who stood on the end of the stage-plank with the coil of rope in his hand, because he was particularly conspicuous. By and by, one of our boys went away. After some time he turned up as apprentice engineer on a steamboat. There was nothing generous about this fellow in his greatness. He would always manage to have a rusty bolt to scrub while his boat tarried

in our town, and he would sit and scrub it where we could all see him and envy him and loathe him. And whenever his boat was laid up he would come home and swell around the town in his blackest and greasiest clothes, so that nobody could help remembering that he was a steamboatman ; and he used all sorts of steamboat technicalities in his talk, as if he were so used to them that he forgot common people could not understand him. He would speak of the " labboard " side of a horse in an easy, natural way that would make one wish he was dead. This fellow had money, too, and hair oil. Also an ignorant silver watch and a showy brass watch-chain. If ever a youth was cordially admired and hated by his comrades, this one was. No girl could withstand his charms. He " cut out " every boy in the village. When his boat blew up at last, the news diffused a tranquil contentment among us such as we had not known for months. But when he came home the next week, alive, renowned, and appeared in church all battered up and bandaged, a shining hero, stared at and wondered over by everybody, it seemed to us that the partiality of good luck for an undeserving reptile had reached a point where it was open to criticism. At last I ran away that I might be a pilot.—MARK TWAIN,
Life on the Mississippi.

CHAPTER VII

THE PREPOSITION

170. A PREPOSITION is a word used to form a phrase, and to show the relation between a substantive and another word.

They came *with* us. They were now *among* their friends.

171. The substantive which follows a preposition is called its object, and is in the accusative case. This substantive may be a word, a phrase, or a clause.

Give these books to *them* and to your friends.

Some thoughts come from *above*.

Nothing remained but to make the best of a bad case.

You can judge by what he did yesterday.

172. The preposition with its object forms a prepositional phrase, which is either adjectival or adverbial.

He came *from the west* (adverbial).

This grain *from the west* (western grain) is good (adjectival).

* 173. Prepositions are either simple or compound.

1. Simple: *about, above, at, before, by, with, from, etc.*

2. Compound: (a) *underneath, within, notwithstanding, etc.*

(b) *according to, along with, because of, by means of, etc.*

174. Some words are used both as prepositions and as other parts of speech.

The captain has gone *below*. (Adverb.)

The captain is already *below*. (Adjective.)

The captain has gone *below the deck*. (Preposition.)

Considering the price, we are well pleased. (Preposition.)

There were our friends, *considering* the problem. (Participle.)

A number of prepositions like *considering, concerning, touching, owing, pending, during, except, and past*, are derived from present or past participles.

175. The preposition usually precedes its object, but sometimes comes after.

He works *with* us.

We are the people (that) he works *with*.

(It would be better to say: "We are the people *with whom* he works.")

EXERCISE 110

Classify the prepositions in the following sentences as simple or compound, and explain the function of each.

1. We hope that some of you have read *Tom Brown's School Days* during the past year.
2. The hero of the story was among those fortunate lads who attended Rugby School when Dr. Arnold was the head master.
3. Rugby football takes its name from this school.
4. These English schools were different from ours.
5. Only boys were in attendance.
6. All the pupils, except a few day-boys, lived within the school buildings.
7. One result of this system was that what we call homework was done under the guidance of the teachers.
8. Although you do not say so in words, many of you would be glad to see this plan adopted here.
9. Several classes gathered in a large room, and were supposed to prepare their work without talking.
10. The masters walked up and down the room during this period.
11. You may scarcely credit it, but some of the young gentlemen, when the masters had walked by their seats, actually began to talk.
12. Those who have read the book can tell whether Tom was among these chatterboxes or not.

176. USE WITH CERTAIN WORDS. On account of their meaning, or of usage, certain words are followed by particular prepositions.

1. In some cases there is a harmony of meaning between the word and its accompanying preposition:
adapt to, assent to, confer with, involve in.

The pupil who does not study Latin, should look up the meanings of the italicised prefixes in the dictionary.

2. In many cases there is no such harmony:
associated with, confide in.
3. Some words are followed by more than one preposition.

They *are dying of* (with, from) hunger.

Since the use of prepositions is so varied, the pupil should be guided by the dictionary, and by the usage of good authors.

EXERCISE III

Compose sentences, using each of the following words with its proper preposition or prepositions.

accord	averse	delight	familiar	previous
addicted	beware	desist	grieve	prodigal
adjacent	compare	die	harmonise	relevant
admit	conducive	different	incidental	sick
agree	confer	disappointed	indignant	similar
amalgamate	confide	dispense	inquire	subordinate
annoyed	consist	eager	insensible	suited
appeal	convenient	encroach	negligent	taste
approve	convicted	engaged	oblivious	trust
assent	correspond	envy.	part	unworthy
associated	dazzled	exchange	persist	wait
authority	defer	exclusive	pertinent	zealous

EXERCISE 112

Fill each blank in the following sentences with a suitable preposition.

1. Europe is different — America.
2. Mr. Mulligan differs — Mr. O'Hara — that subject.
3. The miser is not lavish — his money.
4. The candidate's speech was prejudicial — his own interests.
5. We must become reconciled — the loss.
6. The orator spoke for thirty minutes — the needs of the farmers.
7. As soon as he met me, he began to speak — his illness.
8. Do not trespass — the time of a busy man.
9. A wise man is jealous — his good reputation.
10. Though our friend is slow — speech, he is not stupid.
11. Such behaviour is subversive — discipline.
12. Napoleon aspired — greatness.
13. A fond parent bears — the child's faults.

177. SPECIAL CASES.

1. *But* is used as a preposition as well as a conjunction.

I have heard nothing *but* what he tells. (Noun-clause object.)

I cannot *but* believe that he is honest. (I cannot do anything except believe, etc.) (Infinitive object.)

France was all but conquered. (France was all except being conquered.) (Gerund object.)

2. *Than* is a conjunction, but is used with the pronoun *whom* as though it were a preposition.

This is our friend, than *whom* there is none more loyal.

3. *Near* (*nigh*), *like*, and *unlike*, should be treated as prepositions, in spite of the fact that they are compared.

Your son is *like* you.

Your son is *more like* you than your daughter.

He acts *like* a madman.

He acts *more like* a madman than Henry does.

That pupil sits *near* the blackboard.

That pupil sits *nearer* the blackboard than you do.

Who sits *nearest* the teacher?

These words were originally adjectives and adverbs followed by the dative case of the substantive. They are still compared like adjectives and adverbs, but the chief function of each is to show the relation between a substantive and another word. They are, therefore, called prepositions by many grammarians. Others still treat them as adjectives and adverbs.

178. PREPOSITIONAL PARTICLES.

Have you a book to write *on*?

This man is worth speaking *to*.

This matter should be looked *into*.

These words, *on*, *to*, and *into*, would be ordinary prepositions, if they had objects. The first sentence could be so altered as to make *on* a preposition with the object *which*.

Have you a book *on which* to write.

Because they lack objects, words used in this way are called prepositional particles. (See section 33.)

In some cases the verb and the prepositional particle might be treated together as a compound verb, especially when a single word can be substituted, as in the second and third sentences above, and when the verb is passive, as in the third sentence.

This man is worth *addressing*.

That matter should be *investigated*.

179. PARSING OF PREPOSITIONS. This should consist in merely stating the function of the preposition.

He came *with* his friends *to* the concert.

with : Prep. showing the relation between *came* and *friends*.

to : Prep. showing the relation between *came* and *concert*.

EXERCISE 113

Parse the italicised words in the following sentences.

1. Here are a few words whose grammatical value must be looked *into*.

2. Nothing *but* school life *at* Rugby will be described *in* these sentences.

3. The boys assembled *in* a large room *to* work *like* bees *at* their lessons.

4. But this work was not carried *on* *without* some noise.

5. *Notwithstanding* the fact that many were industrious, we cannot *but* admit that there were some drones to be looked *after*.

6. It is plain that these boys were not *like* the pupils *of* this school.

7. Here Tom's reputation for steadiness was all *but* lost.

8. *Besides* the master's desk, there was another large unoccupied desk which stood *near* the front of the room.

9. It would hold four boys and those who secured it and were able to hold it *against* all invaders did anything *but* work.

10. *Consequently*, as soon as the boys came *in*, a rush was made to seize this desk.

11. The struggles to gain it were *like* the fierce battles *between* the Greeks and the Trojans.

12. Finally orders were issued *concerning* it, that it was not to be used *by* anyone.

13. As it was so large that two boys could lie *underneath* it *without* being seen, it seldom remained empty, *notwithstanding* the veto.

14. Hidden *within* its deep cavern, the occupants watched, *through* small holes cut *in* the front, the masters walking *up* and *down* the room.

15. Tom and his chum had often spent the period there, and, *but* for an unlucky accident, might have kept *up* the practice.

16. One day a ball, *with* which they were playing, slipped *from* Tom's hands and rolled *down* the steps *into* the middle *of* the aisle, *just* as the masters turned in their walk.

17. "This must be looked *into*," thought the masters.

18. So the two lads were pulled out, and cane treatment applied *to* their hands *without* delay.

CHAPTER VIII

THE CONJUNCTION

180. **A CONJUNCTION** is a word used to join together words, phrases, or clauses (but not to form phrases).

John and James. The ne'er-do-wells and the good-for-nothings.

What he did and what he wanted, were both important.

181. Conjunctions are first classified as co-ordinating and subordinating.

182. **CO-ORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS** are used to join co-ordinate words, phrases, and clauses, *i.e.*, words, phrases, and clauses of the same grammatical rank.

1. You have read of the Greeks *and* the Romans.
2. We shall visit *either* Rome *or* Athens.
3. *Neither* the Duke of Cornwall *nor* the Marquis of Bute, was present.
4. Charles I. was beheaded, *and* James II. was driven from his throne.
5. Charles II. knew what he wanted, *and* how far he dared to go.

In the first two sentences the conjunctions join nouns that are objects. The conjunction of the third sentence joins two phrases, alternative subjects of *was*. *And* of the fourth sentence joins two principal clauses, while *and* of the fifth sentence joins two subordinate clauses, both of which are objects of the verb *knew*.

The principal co-ordinating conjunctions are the following:¹

and, as well as, but, however, whereas, either, or, else, neither, nor, for.

¹ In conformity with the recommendation of the English Joint Committee on the Terminology of Grammar, no word that can be treated as an adverb is included among co-ordinating conjunctions. See *Report*, p. 21.

When co-ordinating conjunctions occur in pairs, they are called **Correlative**.

Both Rome and Greece finally declined.

The other co-ordinating correlatives are :

either — or ; neither — nor ; not only — but also.

EXERCISE 114

Select the co-ordinating conjunctions in the following sentences, and explain the function of each. When conjunctions are correlative, state that fact.

1. But that is neither here nor there, the donkey was lost and gone, that is certain ; and, what is more, it could not be found either high or low.—CERVANTES, *Don Quixote*.

2. Wisdom and goodness to the vile seem vile.

SHAKESPEARE, *King Lear*.

3. He that keeps nor crust nor crumb,
Weary of all, shall want some.

SHAKESPEARE, *King Lear*.

4. Now, truce, farewell ! and, ruth, begone !
But think not that by thee alone,
Proud chief ! can courtesy be shown.

SCOTT, *The Lady of the Lake*.

5. When young and old in circle
Around the firebrands close ;
When the girls are weaving baskets,
And the lads are shaping bows ;
With weeping and with laughter
Still is the story told.

MACAULAY, *Horatius*.

6. My daughters entertained the young man with topics they thought most modern ; whereas Moses, on the contrary, gave him a question or two from the ancients.—GOLDSMITH
The Vicar of Wakefield.

7. To be, or not to be—that is the question.

SHAKESPEARE, *Hamlet*.

8. He gave the needy not only food but also money.

9. We have toiled all the night and have taken nothing nevertheless at thy word I will let down the net.—LUKE v. 5.

10. Rouse up, sirs ! Give your brains a racking,
Or, sure as fate, we'll send you packing.

BROWNING, *The Pied Piper of Hamelin*.

11. The new owners are pleased with both the farm and the house.

183. SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS are used to join subordinate clauses to certain words in the clauses to which they are subordinate.

1. Most of the subordinating conjunctions are used to introduce adverbial clauses, and are sometimes classified in the same way as those clauses. (See section 31.)

The principal subordinating conjunctions of this kind are :

where, whence, whither, when, whenever, as, while, until, before, since, because, whereas, seeing that, lest, if, provided that, so that, although, though, while, how, than.

2. A few conjunctions are used to introduce noun clauses :

that, whether, if, why, how, when, where.

3. Some of the subordinating conjunctions are used correlatively with other conjunctions, or adverbs.

Where he goes, *there* I follow.

Do you know, *whether* he is sick or lazy ?

Other pairs are the following :

when —— then ; though —— yet ; while —— yet.

In each of these pairs except the second (whether ... or), only the first word is a subordinating conjunction.

4. Certain subordinating conjunctions are adverbial, because they modify the clauses they introduce.

I shall do the work *when* he comes.

The word *when* has a double function. It joins the two clauses, and also modifies the verb in the subordinate clause. It is, therefore, an **Adverbial Conjunction**. (Some grammarians have called such words conjunctive or relative adverbs.) The adverbial conjunctions are :

when, whenever, where (*and its compounds* wherein, whereon, whereof, etc.), whence, why, whither, and how.

184. Conjunctions are also classified as simple and compound.

Simple : *and, as, but, when, where, how, etc., etc.*

Compound : (a) however, whereas, whenever, wherein, etc.
 (b) as well as, seeing that, so that, provided that, etc.

NOTE

EXERCISE 115

(a) Select the subordinating conjunctions in the following sentences, and tell what kind of clause is introduced by each. In the case of adverbial clauses, classify as in section 31.

- (b) Select the compound and correlative conjunctions.
- (c) Select the adverbial subordinating conjunctions, and tell what each one modifies.

1. The good lady was called the Duchess by her fellow-tradesfolk in the square where she lived.

2. If history relates good things of good men, the attentive hearer is excited to imitate that which is good.—BEDE, *The Ecclesiastical History*.

3. The curate and the barber agreed not to speak a word about knight-errantry, lest they should irritate his brain, whence the trouble came.—CERVANTES, *Don Quixote*.

4. When they visited him, they found the poor man so withered and wasted that he looked like a mummy.—CERVANTES, *Don Quixote*.

5. I spoke to the poor wretch by signs as well as I could, that he might understand that we intended to make him well.—DEFOE, *The Adventures of Captain Singleton*.

6. A privacy of glorious light is thine,
 Whence thou dost pour upon the world a flood
 Of harmony.

WORDSWORTH, *To a Skylark*.

7. Surely, surely, slumber is more sweet than toil.

TENNYSON, *The Lotos-Eaters*.

8. All experience is an arch wherethro',
 Gleams that untravelled world.

TENNYSON, *Ulysses*.

9. Then I asked the poor man if the plague had not reached to Greenwich. He said that it had not till about a fortnight before.—DEFOE, *A Journal of the Plague Year*.

10. I asked him then how it happened that those who had shut themselves up in the ships had not sufficient stores of food.—DEFOE, *A Journal of the Plague Year*.

11. Speak the speech, I pray you, as I pronounced it to you.

SHAKESPEARE, *Hamlet*.

12. For two months of the year the sun shines so fiercely that some die thereof, and others die of the frozen mixed drinks.—LANG, *Letters to Dead Authors*.

13. Honour the High North ever and ever,
 Whether she crown you, or whether she slay.

R. W. SERVICE, *Men of the High North*.

185. SPECIAL DIFFICULTIES.

1. Many of the words commonly used as conjunctions are also used as other parts of speech.

That boy is reading Stevenson's "Treasure Island." (Adjective.)

That is what we want. (Pronoun.)

We are glad *that* you have done it. (Conjunction.)

When did Napoleon conquer Italy? (Adverb.)

Napoleon surprised the Austrians, *when* he crossed the Alps into Italy. (Conjunction.)

2. Three conjunctions, *but*, *for*, *whereas*, usually co-ordinating, are sometimes used to introduce subordinate clauses. (For *for* see next subsection.)

It never rains *but* it pours (*unless* it pours).

Whereas I was blind, now I see.—John ix. 25.

3. *For*, *because*.

- (a) The conjunction *for* usually introduces a co-ordinate clause, giving the evidence on which the preceding statement is based.

This man is unwise; *for* his conduct is foolish.

The foolishness of his conduct furnishes the evidence of his lack of wisdom.

- (b) *Because*, on the other hand, introduces a subordinate clause giving the cause for the action, or state of affairs, expressed in the principal clause.

This man's conduct is foolish, *because* he is unwise.

His lack of wisdom is the cause of his foolish conduct.

The *because* clause answers the question, *Why?* while the co-ordinate *for* clause answers the question, *How do you know?*

- (c) *For* is sometimes used in place of *because* to introduce subordinate clauses, especially in cases where it is immaterial whether we regard the *for* clause as co-ordinate, or subordinate.

He came with them, *because* (or *for*) he was anxious.

- (d) Sometimes the connection of the *for* co-ordinate clause with its accompanying co-ordinate clause is very loose and hard to define.

He went to town, *because* he wanted supplies ; *for* he was a generous provider.

My brother helped me yesterday ; *for* he happened to be in town.

My brother's help was given because he was interested in me. His being in town furnished the opportunity for helping.

(e) The subordinate clause introduced by *because* or *for* is separated by a comma from the clause to which it is subordinate ; the co-ordinate clause introduced by *for* is usually separated by a semicolon from the clause with which it is co-ordinate.

4. Clauses introduced by *than* and *as* are frequently elliptical.

Toronto is not as large *as* Montreal (is large).

We all like the generous boy better *than* (we like) the selfish one.

5. Each of the compound conjunctions, *as when*, *as if*, *as though*, *than when*, *than if*, *than where*, etc., is the result of the ellipsis of a whole clause.

Henry VIII. looks *as* (he would look) *if* he were well fed.

Elizabeth was richer *than* (she would have been) *if* she had engaged in many wars.

EXERCISE 116

Classify the conjunctions in the following sentences and explain fully the function of each.

1. The soil in my garden is rich ; *for* the weeds are high.

2. He walks *as if* he were a soldier.

3. O, that I were as great,

As is my grief, or lesser than my name !

SHAKESPEARE, *King Richard II.*

4. Because I could not move, they stretched a canopy for me to lie in.—BEDE, *The Ecclesiastical History*.

5. The vast throng of courtiers resembled an animated bed of tulips ; for men and women alike wore bright, varied colours.—PARKMAN, *Montcalm and Wolfe*.

6. Pitt's patriotism was as comprehensive as it was haughty.—PARKMAN, *Montcalm and Wolfe*.

7. All this I can see as though it were yesterday.—ERCKMANN-CHATRIAN, *The Story of a Peasant*.

8. Moreover, the unfortunate peasants could not plant what they liked in their holdings, for if a peasant converted an arable field into a meadow, he deprived someone of a tithe.
—ERCKMANN-CHATRIAN, *The Story of a Peasant*.

9. Law cannot give my child his kingdom here,
For he that holds his kingdom holds the law.

SHAKESPEARE, *King John*.

10. It frightened me very much; for I did not recover my voice for a minute's space.—LAMB, *Letters*.

11. He learned French, because he was advised to do so.

12. He has learned French; for he understands this Frenchman.

13. He was asleep as soon as his head touched the pillow, for he was very tired.

EXERCISE 117

Fill in each blank in the following sentence with *for* or *because*. Punctuate if necessary.

1. The planets belong to our solar system — they move round the sun.

2. The weather has been dry — the grass is burned up.

3. The farmer will reap — he has sown.

4. He will die some day — all men are mortal.

5. All roads led to Rome — it was the capital of the world.

6. The army will fight well — the soldiers are brave.

7. It has been raining — the roads are muddy.

8. He was full of energy — he never took anything in hand without finishing it.

9. The condition of England was wretched — King Richard was a prisoner.

10. No one can travel in that direction — the country is a desert.

11. The days are long — it is the middle of summer.

12. Mr. Rogers was lame — he had had a fall.

13. He has been up for several hours — it is now ten o'clock.

14. The enemy did not reach Paris — they could not break through our lines.

186. CONJUNCTIVE PARTICLES.

The French were there *as well as* the British (were there).

The French *as well as* the British were there.

In each of these sentences, *as well as* is a conjunction, for in each sentence a subordinate clause is partly expressed, and can be filled out. But in the sentences,

The French were there *as well*,

The French *as well* were there,

no part of a subordinate clause is expressed, although a subordinate idea is implied by the use of *as well*. These two words have some conjunctive value, but are not a full conjunction, and are, therefore, called a CONJUNCTIVE PARTICLE. Other words used in the same way are *though* and *as*.

He is a great success *as* leader of the party.
He will be sure to fail, *though*.

187. PARSING OF CONJUNCTIONS. The parsing of a conjunction should be confined, ordinarily, to two points: (1) its classification as co-ordinating or subordinating, and (2) its function in the sentence. (See page 268.)

Our friends *and* relatives will come home *when* the circus has closed.

and : Co-ordinating conjunction, joining the nouns *friends* and *relatives*.

when : Subordinating conjunction, joining the subord. adv. cl. of time, "When the circus has closed," to the verb of the prin. cl., and modifying the verb *has closed*.

EXERCISE 118

Parse the conjunctions and conjunctive particles in the following sentences.

- 1. He had money *as well as* land.
2. The barn was burned and the house caught fire *as well*.
3. War he detested, *as* the disgrace and calamity of human nature.—GIBBON, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*.
4. Upwards of eight hundred years were past since the Arabian invaders defeated Roderick, the last of Spain's Gothic Kings.—W. IRVING, *The Conquest of Grenada*.
5. The fire did so much damage that the house must come down.
6. I was afraid to tell you, lest you should be too much afflicted; yet you may have this comfort that the calamity will not happen in your days.—BEDE, *The Ecclesiastical History*.
- 7. Old Bill told me that he had hoped that I intended to take his place as ostler when he was fit for no more work.—BORROW, *The Romany Rye*.
8. Suddenly I bethought me of Horncastle, which Francis had mentioned as a place where the horse was likely to find a purchaser.—BORROW, *The Romany Rye*.

9. 'Tis said, as through the aisles they passed,
 They heard strange noises on the blast ;
 And through the cloister-galleries small,
 Which at mid-height thread the chancel wall,
 Loud sobs, and laughter louder ran,
 And voices unlike the voice of man ;
 As if the fiends kept holiday,
 Because these spells were brought to-day.
 I cannot tell how the truth may be ;
 I say the tale, as 'twas said to me.

SCOTT, *Lay of the Last Minstrel.*

10. Here lies David Garrick, describe him who can,
 An abridgment of all that was pleasant in man ;
 As an actor, confessed without rival to shine,
 As a wit, if not first, in the very first line.

GOLDSMITH, *Retaliation.*

- 11. And now I looked much better than I did when Bessie
 saw me.—C. BRONTË, *Jane Eyre.*

12. I have heard him prove that sloth has ruined more
 nations than the sword.—STEELE, *The Spectator.*

13. Go, signify as much, while here we march
 Upon the grassy carpet of this plain.

SHAKESPEARE, *King Richard II.*

CHAPTER IX

HISTORICAL OUTLINE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

SECTION I.—THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

188. **Introduction.**—When we read Burns' Scotch poems or Ian MacLaren's stories, or Scott's novels, we meet many strange words and new forms for which we often need a dictionary. The same thing happens when we pick up "Dorset Dear," a collection of short stories by Mary E. Francis, William Barnes' "Poems in the Dorset Dialect" or many of Eden Phillpotts' novels of Devon life. Indeed, we hear every day all sorts of curious and "wrong" pronunciations and words from the lips of London, Devon, Irish, Yorkshire and Scotch people who have settled amongst us.

189. All these striking, "queer," and strange phenomena, for such they are, are "as old as the hills," in origin dating from the earliest forms of our English speech of fully fourteen hundred years ago. At first these differences were not very great, because the area of English speech was very limited, not covering half of England. But as time went on and as the people grew in numbers and increased their territories, new words were imported and added to the native stock, new spellings were introduced, and many changes were made. These all correspond to the new learning, new arts and sciences, new social and political changes, new discoveries of lands and in science, new colonisation and the ever increasing growth of the British empire and of British influence. Hence it comes that the number of our English words has increased from a few thousands in the days of King Alfred, and the twenty-five thousand or thereabouts in Shakespeare, to the hundreds of thousands in the immense "New English Dictionary" in process of publication by the Clarendon Press. Even

that immense book does not contain all the words which are to be found in an English newspaper or magazine of to-day (1919), because we are continually forming new words for new objects, new inventions or new discoveries. For instance, *camouflage* is not in that work, and yet it was very necessary during the Great War. And when we talk amongst ourselves we do not always use "book talk," but are much freer, more colloquial or "familiar," or even make use of "slang."

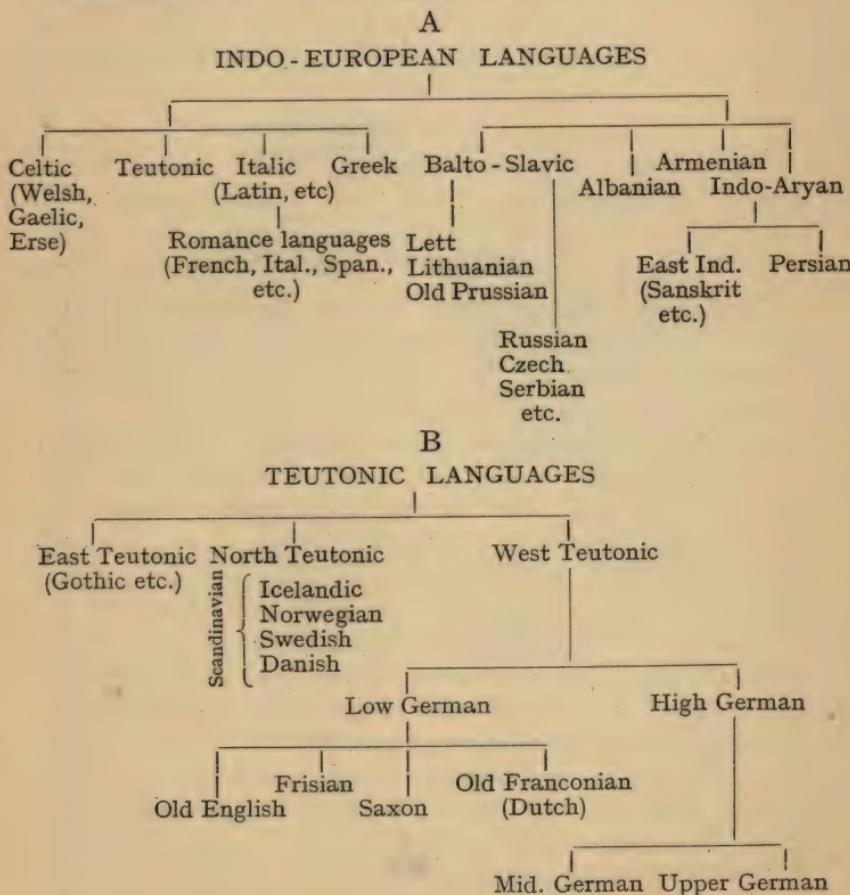
190. **Life in Words.**—The history of our English language shows, too, that many words have passed right out of our speech, that is, have died ; that many others have lost caste or rank ; that some still live among the people in Scotland or Devon, but not in our literary English ; that some are used very rarely, and only in poetry, as *worth* in "Wo worth the chase" ("Lady of the Lake"), and that some slang words have risen in rank and become current in literature. The history of the birth, life and death of our words is for the most part the history of the English-speaking people, and therefore intensely interesting.

191. **Relationship, Teutonic.**—But our English speech is not totally different and distinct from every other tongue. If we pick up a Danish or a German testament, an easy way of making some interesting comparisons, we find at once that many words in these languages are very like English, among others those which correspond to *man*, *house*, *foot*, *good*, *drive*. This means, not that we or they have been borrowing, but that we all get them from a common stock of inherited words which go away back to a common Teutonic mother-tongue. Not only are the words themselves very much alike, but the grammar of the English has many things in common with that of the Danish or German tongue. This is also true of the syntax, and more so of the sounds in these languages. That is, these languages are very closely related, or are "sister-tongues."

192. **Relationship, Indo-German.**—When we begin the study of Latin and Greek, we find that *duo*, *two*, and *zwei* ; *tres*, *three*, and *drei*, look quite a bit alike, and if we observe carefully and at length, we find that our "parent Teutonic"

had a lot of sisters, and that one of those sisters, Latin, had a number of daughters—among them, French, Italian and Spanish.

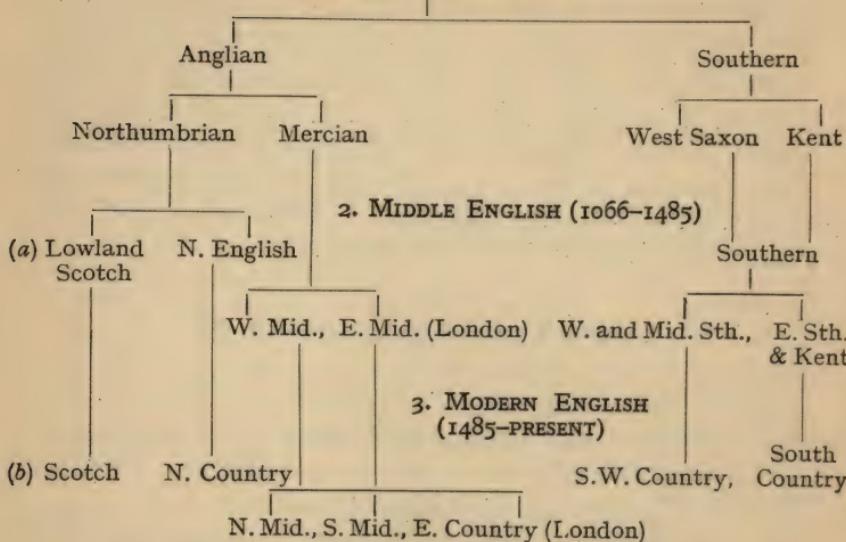
193. **Some History.**—In 1786 Sir William Jones, a fine Oriental scholar, first called attention to the relationship of the family of languages, variously called Indo-European, Indo-Germanic, or Aryan. It was thought at first that the family had its origin in Asia, but R. G. Latham, an English scholar, in 1851 suggested that the original home had been somewhere in Europe, and this is now the prevailing theory. The following diagrams will illustrate fairly the present-day ideas of the relationship.



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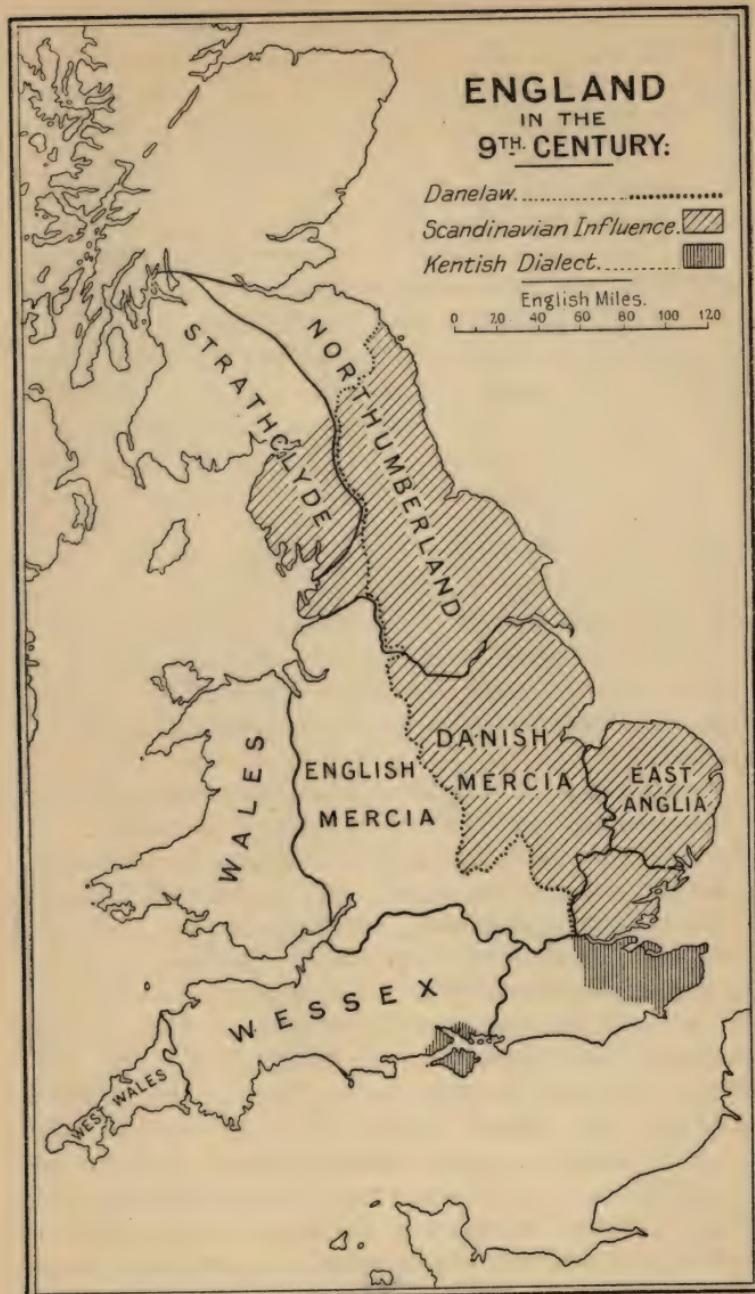
THE ENGLISH DIALECTS

I. OLD ENGLISH (TO 1066)



The relationship of these various languages may be shown by the comparative method under four headings: *vocabulary*, *phonology*, or the history of pronunciation, *inflections* (accidence or morphology), and *syntax*.

194. A Brief Outline of English History.—In this sketch we are principally concerned with the English language and its evolution. We must keep in mind a very brief outline of the history of the English people so as to fit into their proper place the facts of the language spoken by them. The three chief tribes were originally at home on the Continent, the Angles in Schleswig-Holstein, the Jutes north of them, and the Saxons south. In the migrations which they, in common with many other German tribes, made during the break-up of the western Roman Empire, they advanced westwards along the coast and from the present Holland, Belgium and Normandy reached England about A.D. 450, forty years after the departure of the Romans. The Angles settled north of the Thames, the



Saxons along and to the south of the Thames, and the Jutes in Kent, the Isle of Wight, and the Hampshire coast opposite. From the south and east these tribes, known from the beginning as *Anglisc* or English, gradually conquered England and forced the Celts, who had been there from before the Roman time, back into Cornwall, where the Celtic tongue died out only in the eighteenth century, into Wales, where a Celtic tongue is spoken yet, into Strathclyde, west of the Pennine hills, and into Scotland and its Highlands. First Northumbria, then Mercia, and lastly Wessex held the overlordship. But shortly before Wessex became prominent, a new invasion took place, part of the great Viking or Scandinavian movement of the ninth century, and the greatest king, Alfred (871-901), had to agree in 878 to divide the land with the new-comers. The part given to the Danes was called the *Danelaw*, the influence of which remains to the present day in place-names, vocabulary, and syntax. For a short time there were Danish (Scandinavian) kings in England (1013-42), of whom Canute was the greatest. During the reign of the successor of these, Edward the Confessor (1042-66), there was a beginning of Norman or French influence.

The conquest of England by William of Normandy (1066) brought the Old English period to a close. For fully two centuries it is possible to speak of a *submergence* of English in favour of French, but the loss of Normandy in 1204 marks a beginning of the *emergence* of English which was complete in 1362, when English was made the language of the courts of law. The influence of this Anglo-French, and later that of the French of Paris (Central French), is very marked in the South, just as the Scandinavian influence is strong in the North. By the end of the Wars of the Roses, England was well knit together; and with James I. began the bringing of Scotland into political union, completed in 1707. In the reign of Elizabeth there began that planting of colonies overseas which led to the great colonial expansion of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, which was increased also by conquest,



chiefly at the expense of the French. The nineteenth century is noteworthy because of the great commercial expansion to all parts of the world, the great industrial revolution, and the beginning of the evolution of democracy in Great Britain. Science, too, had made wonderful development in every branch. During the last quarter of the nineteenth century there was another great increase of colonial territory, by which nearly 90,000,000 people were added to the great total of British subjects. The opening of the twentieth century saw the mother-country and the overseas dominions more closely knit together because of the South African War (1899-1902), and these ties have been strengthened in manifold ways by the Great War (1914-18). Because of these developments, and also because of the great growth of the United States, English now bids fair to become a great world-language (and is, indeed, the principal one). What is in the future no one knows, but it would seem that the twentieth century is to be an Anglo-Saxon century. It is, therefore, increasingly necessary that we know thoroughly our mother-tongue, to which end a study of its history is imperative.

195. English Dialects.—To return to Old English and its speech. Corresponding to the four chief kingdoms of Kent, Wessex, Mercia and Northumbria, we have the four main varieties of speech known as Kentish, West Saxon, Mercian and Northumbrian. Northumbria was the home of the old English poetry, in West Saxon our first good prose was written, and the Mercian, later called Midland, became in great part the basis of our modern speech. The Kentish was early absorbed by the West Saxon, later called Southern. Right down to the present day, varieties of these tongues, or *dialects*, may be heard in the various parts of England. These differences are now in process of disappearing, because of the increase of travel between all parts of England, Scotland and Ireland, and chiefly because of the influence of schools and the increase of education among all classes.

It is very difficult for a boy or girl to realise to the full extent the long persistence of these differences; but a little

MODERN ENGLISH DIALECTS. MAIN DIVISIONS.

(After Wright but compare Ellis.)



attention to the varieties of speech and pronunciation which may be heard almost everywhere will prove that these "phenomena" are real. The student of a language does not ask which is "right," but tries to find the reason for the differences. The conventional "standard" language which we all aim to speak also includes many of these "phenomena." It has a great many technical, scientific, literary, colloquial, dialectic and even slang words and expressions, many new coinages, many fossilized or dying words and phrases. The history of the language tells a fascinating story of the growth and development of the English people.

196. Divisions of the History of the English Language.—
The history of our language may be divided into :

- (a) *The Old English period* (from the beginning to 1066);
- (b) *The Middle English* from 1066 to 1485; and
- (c) *Modern English*, subdivided according to the centuries.

Old English (O.E.) was a highly inflected speech; the words were mostly native, a few only being borrowed from Latin and Scandinavian (*loan-words*); and *dialects* were prominent. The language of King Alfred is the chief representative, and may be said to have shown signs of becoming a standard.

In Middle English (M.E.), inflections were *levelled*, so that nouns, adjectives and pronouns were used much as they are to-day, dialects were still prominent, and there was a large influx of French and Scandinavian words, some Latin, Greek and Dutch. Chaucer (1340-1400) wrote very nearly as we do, but his pronunciation was quite different, and his words have often a very different meaning from the modern ; Wyclif, by his translation of the Bible, helped to make a standard language possible. In both the Old and the Middle English periods, writing was phonetic, and there were no *printed*, but only *written* or *manuscript* books. As such books were costly, fifty made a fairly large library.

In Modern English (Mn.E.), books began to increase very rapidly, due to the introduction of printing by Caxton

(1476); spelling became more fixed and grew more and more unphonetic; although pronunciation changed at fairly regular intervals, a standard speech gained the upper hand, and dialects were gradually taboo. There was an enormous increase of vocabulary, especially in the nineteenth century, and less inflection, indeed very little.

197. In Syntax there has been from the first a constant tendency to simplicity.

198. **Extent of the Language.**—The English language is now spoken by far more people outside of the British Isles than in them; it is the chief language of commerce, and latterly is being used in diplomacy.

SECTION II.—VOCABULARY¹

199. **Old English Vocabulary.**—Even before the English left their home on the continent they had borrowed one word, at least, *rice* (royal, mighty), from their *Celtic* neighbours, and some dozens from the Latins with whom they had carried on trade and commerce. These words were *popular*, not *learned* or *book-words*, and have to do with *trade*, such as *wine*, *gem*, *pound*; or with *travel*, as *mile*, *port*, *street*. A great many names of receptacles were also borrowed, such as *kettle*, *ark*, *chest*, *bin*, *dish*, which, taken together with *cook*, *kitchen*, *mill*, *plum*, *pea*, *cole* (cabbage), and many others, show that there must have been a great change for the better in the art of cooking.

All these words are short, of one or two syllables, *popular*, and easily regarded as fully *native* and indispensable, all being *concrete* in meaning.

Very few were borrowed between the landing in England, A.D. 450, and the coming of the Roman missionaries under Augustine, A.D. 597. Some such were *ceaster*, a camp (modern, *caster*, in Doncaster, or Chester, which shows a change in pronunciation), *pear*, and *segn*, a standard, which has survived only in its French form, *sign*.

The Latin words borrowed after the coming of the

¹ Note: The lists in this section are given for illustration, and are not meant to be memorised.

missionaries, A.D. 597, a very important date, are mostly of a learned type and look like Latin. Examples are : *abbor*, abbot ; *apostol*, apostle ; *læden*, Latin ; *martyr*.

When we count all these borrowed words to the number of several hundreds, we see that they are, after all, few as compared with the total number of words in our Old English speech. This does not mean that Latin influence was slight. The English borrowed very many ideas, but in many cases substituted old English names for the Latin ones. For *archbishop* they used *hēahbiscop* *high-bishop* ; for *disciple*, *leornungcniht*, learning youth ; for *corona*, *bēag*, ring ; for *evangel* they used *godspell*, gospel ; for *temptation*, *costnung* ; for *judgment*, *dōm* ; for *charity*, *lufu*, love ; for *scribe*, *bōcere*, booker ; and so in numerous other cases. The native words were quite capable of expressing the idea, and were used. Later it became the fashion to take over the foreign words, and many good Old English words were dropped entirely.

The other main source from which we get loan-words in the Old English is the Scandinavian. This we should expect because of the Danelaw settlement of 878. We find between 150 and 200 words thus borrowed. A great many of these were *military* or *nautical* terms, such as *fylcian* to marshal, *barda* and *cnear*, certain kinds of boats; or else they were *legal*, such as *wapentake*, *law*, *by-law* (originally town-law), *carlman*, man, *thrall*, *husband*, and the like. Many of these borrowings have since disappeared, or are found only in northern dialects.

Place-names are very interesting, because they show the nationality of the early inhabitants. Celtic names are *Aberdeen*, *Carlisle*, *Dundee*, *Kilmarnock*, *Llangollen*, *Strathclyde*, where *aber* means mouth, *car* castle, *dun* a camp, *kil* church, *llan* sacred place, *strath* a broad valley. Otherwise we have very few Celtic words in Old English, principally *bannock*, *brock* badger, *brat* cloak, *dry* wizard.

A great many place-names are found which go back to the Latin *castra*, a camp, such as *Winchester*, *Leicester*, and *Lancaster*.

Scandinavian place-names are quite common : *Whitby*

white town, Grimsby Grim's town, Aldsthorp^e old village, Lowestoft Lowe's home, Braithwaite Braiplace.

But when all these words and forms are taken into account, it still remains true that the Old English speech was English, and that the foreign words were absorbed, and in small numbers.

Perhaps it will be interesting to think what sort of speech the people in England would have been using, had the English not come to the country. Would it have been a Celtic tongue akin to the Gaelic, or would the influence of the Latin have produced another Romance tongue, a sister of the French, Spanish and Italian? And if there had been no Norman Conquest, of what nature would the speech have been? Probably very much more like the German or the Scandinavian, or a combination of the two.

200. **Middle English Vocabulary (1066-1485).**—In this period a great change comes over the English tongue. The greatest influence is that of the Norman or Anglo-French. As has already been noted, three centuries passed before the English fully emerged; and when it did, we find a great number of French, and Latin forms through the French, fully adopted. These refer particularly to the Church, its doctrines and services, to law, to the military life, to government, and to the refinements of life. This adoption of French words was a gradual process, making really very little progress before A.D. 1150, and becoming very strong between 1250 and 1400. Professor Jespersen (*Growth and Structure of the English Language*) estimates that up to 1500 nearly 66 per cent. of the French words in our language were introduced; 8·4 per cent. before 1250 (only 2 per cent. up to 1200), 42·7 per cent. between 1250 and 1400, and 14·5 per cent. in the fifteenth century. That it took a long time to make these longer French words at home in our speech, is shown by the fact that *honour* was accented either as honoúr or hónour by Chaucer, *liquor* was licoúr, and *season* could be sesoún or sésoun. There was no difficulty with words of one syllable, which were much more easily adopted; as, for example, *pass*, *catch*, *chase*, *case*, *damn*, *fine*, *gay*, *large*, *mock*, *plead*, *rein*, *saint*, *vein*, and many others.

Closely related to the French words were the Latin, the language of learning, science and the Church, such as *abbreviate, ablution, add, acquisition, aggregate, cadence*.

The Scandinavian influence, which must have begun, as we have seen, in King Alfred's time, continued very strong until about 1250, with the result that a large number of Norse words were found in the writings from Northern England and Scotland, and slowly but surely made their way into literary English. Chaucer, a southern writer, has very few, but Caxton uses a much larger number. Most of these words, like the English, were monosyllables. Some examples are *bark* (of a tree), *brink, beck* (brook), *bulk* (size), *cleft, egg, leg, raft, skirt* (and many others with initial *sk*), *bask, die* (which, because of likeness to *dead* and *death* displaced *starve*, which, except in dialect, now means one kind of death), *take* (which drove out the O.E. *niman*), *raise* (a doublet of *rear*), *sleek, sly, till*, and many others. Many place-names might be added to the few given under the Old English.

A few Dutch words were introduced by the weavers brought in by Edward III., such as *curl, nap* (of cloth), *ravel, spool, stoup*.

As in the Old English, so in this period, few Celtic words were introduced; some are *clan, collie, crag, ingle, plaid, reel* (a dance), *whiskey*.

A few Greek words came in through the French, such as *blame* (introduced later again as *blaspheme*), *currants, dropsy, fancy, slander*.

201. Modern English Vocabulary (1485 to the present).—French words continued to come into the language in large numbers down to 1850, when importation practically ceased. From the figures given under Middle English, it will be seen that about 32 per cent. of our borrowings are from 1500 to 1850. Nearly all of these keep the French accent, which shows that they have not been so fully adopted as those of the previous period.

During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries we adopted a great many Italian words having reference to art, music, painting and poetry: *duet, concert, sonata, falsetto*,

stanza, miniature, profile are some examples. Some general words are also found, as *umbrella, fiasco, influenza, artisan, cartoon* (the latter two through the French).

Spanish furnishes quite a number, such as *ambuscade, negro, renegade*; Portuguese gives us *albatross, cocoa, veranda*; Russian, *knout, steppe*; Modern Scandinavian, *tungsten* and others; Malay, *gingham, gong, ketchup*; China, *tea*; and hundreds come from America, *squaw, wigwam, potato, tobacco, moccasin* among the rest.

From every quarter of the globe we have added words and are still adding them, as, for instance, *camouflage*. This statement can be verified by a study of the addenda in the latest issue of the Concise Oxford Dictionary.

202. Coinages.—But we have not only borrowed words, we have coined them in great numbers. The great advances in science in the nineteenth century, made it necessary to have new words. For instance, the discovery of oxygen forced us to coin the word and introduce it in 1840, and now there is a large oxygen family in every dictionary. Marsh, lecturing at Columbia University, New York, 1858-59, calls attention to a number of new words he had found in a daily paper, among them *telegram* (first used in 1852); *prospecting* for gold; they are not *on speaking terms*; an *emergent* meeting; old *fogy*; and is not sure they will make good. *Telephone* has currency since 1876, *telepathy* since 1882, and *automobile* is not in the "New English Dictionary." (Vol. I was printed in 1895.) When the English colonized Australia, they found hundreds of new plants and animals, for which they invented names such as (*laughing*) *jackass, lyre-bird, sugar-grass, iron-heart, long-fin*.

203. Substitutions.—There is one outstanding feature of the English language that is remarkable. We may use almost any word as more than one part of speech. Especially may we use a verb as a noun, or the opposite. This has wonderfully increased the power of expression of the language. *Bend*, a verb, can be used as a noun; *eye*, a noun, as a verb; and similar examples can be found in great numbers in any modern novel, or heard in everyday speech.

204. Words Used with Various Meanings.—Again, we

may be said to add very largely to our vocabulary when we use words in different senses. For instance, we may say, "the man is strong" (powerful), "the child is not strong" (healthy), "the butter is strong" (has not a good taste), "butter is strong" (high-priced), "the fortress is strong" (well calculated to resist attack), "a political party is strong" (numerous and influential), "the perfume is strong" (very rich), "he is still going strong" (running easily). *Fine* is another word with a great many meanings: a fine needle, a fine house, a fine fellow, a fine road. Indeed, in many words the meanings often seem contradictory, and yet we have no trouble in understanding what is meant.

205. **Result.**—The net result of our large and varied borrowings, of our skill in making new compounds, but above all our custom of interchanging nouns and verbs, has increased our vocabulary from between twenty-five and thirty thousand in the Old English period, to nearly five hundred thousand to-day, and the end is not in sight. Words of foreign origin largely predominate in the dictionaries, but yet the speech is English. Marsh (*Lectures on the English Language*) estimates that even Samuel Johnson, noted for the Latinity of his style, used 72 per cent. of English words in his writings, Gibbon 70 per cent., Macaulay 75 per cent., Pope 80 per cent., Tennyson, one of the most English of writers, 88 per cent., and that the Bible has 96 per cent. of English words. Two lists of recent countings are on my desk. Rev. J. Knowles, of London, England, counted 100,000 words in passages from the Bible and various authors to find out how often words were repeated. In the first 353 there are only 84 loan-words, among which are *church, call, take, case, place, took, just, taken, doubt, mere, view, fact, age, sure*, and some others which we do not feel to be borrowed because they are short. R. C. Eldridge, of Niagara Falls, N.Y., counted the words on eight pages of Buffalo Sunday papers issued in July and August, 1909, arranged them in the order of their "commonness," and added the number of times each appeared. In the first hundred there are *four* loan-words,

in the first 353, 102. Altogether he has 6000 words, of which 499 occur *ten* times or oftener, 86 *nine* times, 84 *eight* times, 105 *seven* times, 151 *six* times, 212 *five* times, 294 *four* times, 516 *three* times, 1079 *twice* and 2976 *once*. As the lists increase in size, the native words decrease rapidly. When we study the lists, we feel inclined to agree with some experiments that have been made with regard to the number of words children may use. A child seventeen months old was found to use 232, and a boy of six, 2688. Are we not constantly surprised at the words small children use correctly? They are monosyllabic mostly, and largely native.

206. **Synonyms; Doublets; Homonyms.**—Another result of possessing such a vast number of words is that we have a great many *synonyms*, or words which mean the same or nearly the same thing. Therefore, if we will, we may give expression to the finest shades of thought on any subject. We have also a great many *doublets* or pairs of words, such as *aggrieve* and *aggravate*, *kirk* and *church*, *assoil* and *absolve*. We write *busy* (south-west-country form) and pronounce *bizi*, or *victuals* (Latin spelling) and pronounce *vitlz*, an Old French form. Moreover, there are also *homonyms*, or words which sound alike, but have not the same meaning, as *mean* (average), *mean* (low), and *mien* (looks). Such words give rise to innumerable puns.

207. **Impressions made by English Speech.**—Altogether our English speech gives an impression of *masculine strength* and *sobriety* of which we should be proud. Its history is the history of the English people, even when we think of the *piggin* or *baboo* English of the Far East. Indeed, our words are our earliest historical records. What of the future? It is estimated that in 1500 some four million people spoke our tongue, in 1600 six million, in 1700 eight and one half million, in 1800 over twenty million, in 1900, 166 million. No other language has made such gains, no other language has such a prospect of becoming the world-language. This last Great War has opened up immense possibilities. Our mother-tongue is worthy of our best, most devoted study.

208. St. Mark vi. 41-43.

SECTION III.—A COMPARATIVE STUDY

An illustration of inflections, conjugation,

O.E. TEXT, ABOUT A.D.
1000EARLY M.E. TEXT,
ABOUT A.D. 1175WYCLIF-PURVEY VER-
SION, A.D. 1388

41. And fif hlāfum and twām fixum on-fangenum hē on heofon lōcode and hi blētsode and ðā hlāfas bræc, and sealde his leorningcnih-tum ðæt hi tōforan him āsetton. And twegen fixas him eallon dælde.

41. And fif hlāfen and twām fixen on-fangenēn hē on heofon lōkede and hyō blētsode and ðā hlāfes bræc and sealde his leorningcnih-ten ðæt hyō tōforen heom āsetten. And twegen fixsc̄es heom eallen dælde.

41. And whanne he hadde take the fyue looues and twei fischis, he biheelde in to heuene, and blesside, and brak looues, and ȝaf to hise disciplis, that thei schul-den settē bifor hem: and he departide twei fischis to alle;

42. And hī āeton ðā ealle and gefyllede wur-don;

42. And hyō āeten ðā ealle and gefylde wur-den.

42. And alle eeten, and weren fulfilled.

43. And hī nāmon ðāra hlāfa and fixa lāfe twelf wilian fulle.

43. And hyō nāme(n) ðāre hlāfe and fixsce lāfe twelf wilien fulle.

43. And thei token the relifs of brokun metis, twelve cofyns ful, and of the fischis.

OF ST. MARK VI. 41-43

syntax, spelling, stress and vocabulary.

KING JAMES VER-
SION, 1611 (FACSIMILE)

41. And when he had taken the fие loaues, and the two fishes, he looked vp to heauen, and blessed, and brake the loaues, and gaue them to his disciples to set before them; and the two fishes diuided he among them all.

42. And they did all eate, and were filled.

43. And they took vp twelue baskets full of the frgments, and of the fishes.

REVISED VERSION, 1881

41. And he took the five loaves and the two fishes, and looking up to heaven he blessed and brake the loaves, and he gave to his disciples to set before them; and the two fishes divided he among them all.

42. And they did all eat and were filled.

43. And they took up broken pieces, twelve basketfuls, and also of the fishes.

THE TWENTIETH CEN-
TURY NEW TESTAMENT

41. Next, taking the five loaves and the two fishes, Jesus looked up to Heaven and blessed God. After this he broke the loaves into pieces and proceeded to give them to his disciples to set before the people, dividing the two fishes as well among them all.

42 and 43. Everyone had plenty to eat, and enough pieces were taken away to fill twelve baskets and some of the fish besides.

DEDUCTIONS FROM THE COMPARISON OF THESE
SIX VERSIONS

209. Translation.—The versions 1–5 agree as closely as could be expected in view of the changes that had been taking place in the language during the long centuries, but the revised version was not in the form of the nineteenth-century speech. It varies very little from the King James version. The twentieth-century version, made according to the best Greek text available, aims at using the speech current among the people in 1900. It therefore is quite different from the revised version and all the preceding ones.

210. Vocabulary.

Onfangenum, past participle of *onfōn*, has passed out of the language and been replaced by the Scandinavian *take*.

Sealde, gave, now means *gave for a price, sold*; i.e., is limited in meaning.

Leorningcnihtum, the separate parts of which we have in *learning* and *knight*, was the O.E. translation for the Latin *discipulus*, and has made way for the French form of that word.

Tōforan has been replaced by another compound of *fore*: before.

Asetton, a compound of *settan*, is replaced by the forms of the simple word *sette*, set.

Twegen gives the modern form *twain*, but is replaced by the neuter form *twā*, two.

Dālde, Mn.E. *dealed, dealt*, is replaced in Wyclif's version by *departed*, now changed in meaning. The Latin word *divided* is used in the later versions.

Wurdon, past plural of *weorðan* (become, German *werden*), is now represented by a fossilised form *worth* (Scott), but is not used in ordinary speech.

Nāmon, past plural of *niman*, take, used as late as Chaucer, has now become obsolete, and is replaced everywhere by *take*.

Lāfe, from *lāf*, remnant, is replaced by *relif*, fragment, in Wyclif. This was afterwards supplanted by *fragments* or (*broken*) *pieces*.

Wilian (willow), basket, is replaced by *cofyns* (basket, box, chest) in Wyclif, and when that word was limited in meaning in the sixteenth century, *basket*, a thirteenth-century introduction, was substituted. It had not been in common use, and probably was technical in sense.

211. Phonetic Signs.—The following phonetic signs, which are illustrated with key-words, will be used in succeeding sections to explain changes in English sounds and spelling.

The following consonants present no difficulty: b, d, f, h, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, z.

CONSONANTS

g	get	ʒ	pleasure
ŋ	strong	tʃ	chaff
j	yell	θ	thick
dʒ	judge	ð	thine
f	shall		

VOWELS

æ	hat	o	police
a:	father	u	put
e	pet	u:	too
i:	meet, meat	ʌ	cup
i	pit	ə:	bird
ɔ:	hot	ə	ducal
ɔ:	flaw, flaunt		

DIPHTHONGS

ei	say, name	oi	coy, boyl
ou	note, pole	ɪə	here
ai	by, buy, bind	ɛə	there
au	how, bound	ʊə	tour

NOTE: This list of phonetic signs represents merely the pronunciation of S.E., but is in line with the development of English sounds from the earliest times. The student of Jones (Bibliography 20; *Dictionary*, Sect. 222) will see that even in Britain pronunciation varies with locality. The same thing is shown by Krapp (Bibliography 22) for America, and to his own speech-sounds Canadians approximate pretty closely. For instance, the *r* is not dropped, and some of the long vowels are not noticeably diphthongal. The colon placed after any vowel sign indicates length.

212. Phonology, or Spelling and Pronunciation.—In O.E. there were four combinations beginning with *h*, namely *hl*, *hn* in *hnīgan*, to bend down (German *neigen*), *hr* in *hræfn*, raven, and *hw* in *hwā*, who. As in *hālfas*, the *h* was dropped in the first three, but in *hw* the order was reversed, as in “who,” “when,” without change of pronunciation.

The O.E. sign *æ*, short and long, was discarded at the end of the O.E. period (*bræc*, *æton*), and *a* took its place. But we still say *hæt*, hat, *kæt*, cat, *pæt*, pat, etc.

The O.E. *ea* (from *æ*) was West Saxon. In the Anglian dialects *a* took its place, and was lengthened to *ā* before *ld*, which then changed to *ɔ:*, then *o:*, and lastly *ou*: (*sealde*) *salde*: *sālde*, *sɔ:ld*, *so:ld*, *sould*, sold.

Before *ll*, the *a* has become *ɔ:* in *ealle*, all.

O.E. *ā* was changed to *ɔ:* (very often spelled *oa* in sixteenth-century English). Later this *ɔ:* became *o:*, and then *ou*: *hlāf*, *louf* with its sixteenth-century spelling. In *twā* the *w* changed the later *o:* to *u:*, and was then dropped in pronunciation.

The O.E. short diphthong, *eo*, reverted to the short *e*-sound, but is represented in M.N.E. by *ea*, one of the M.E. ways of indicating the sound (*heofon*, *leorning*).

O.E. *mete* (*e* short) was lengthened in M.E. to *eɪ*, changed later to *e:*, and then to *i:*; but it retains its sixteenth-century spelling. Short *e* has remained in *set* (*āsetton*).

O.E. *ē* (pron. *e:*) was shortened before two consonants to *e*, and remains (*bletsode*, blessed).

In *hē* it has become *iɪ*, but retains the M.E. spelling.

Short *i* has remained in *fixum*, fishes, and *him*, but has been lengthened in *cnihtum*, knight, and later made a diphthong, *ai*.

O.E. *ō*, written *oo*, but pronounced *o:* in M.E., changed to *u:* later, and is still heard, but usually was shortened to *u*, as in *lōcode*, looked. It has gone on to *ʌ* in *blōd*, blood, with its old M.E. spelling.

Y (short and long) in O.E. at first represented the sound heard in the German *ü* (short and long). Even in O.E.

times the rounding of the lips was omitted, and so *i* (i!) was heard (*gefyllede*, filled).

All O.E. diphthongs were made long vowels in M.E. because of the increased stress on the first element, and the diphthongs we now have are M.E. developments which later became long vowels. So *twegian* became *twe-in*, *twe:n*, *twein*, now spelled *twain*.

These vowel and diphthong changes, to which many more would have to be added to make the list complete for native words alone, would also be increased were we to follow up the changes in the French and Scandinavian words so numerous in our speech. A full list would show how our pronunciation has changed entirely. Reading a few lines of Chaucer with his pronunciation will illustrate this clearly. (See Sect. 225.)

The consonants have undergone comparatively little change, but the orthography has changed. For instance, in *hlafum* the *f* was pronounced *v* in O.E. In M.E. we adopted the French sign *v*, sometimes written and printed *u*, as in *loaves* (King James), but we have not changed the sound. *Fixum*, from the O.E. *fisc*, shows what was often done, viz., that the *sc* was written *cs=x*. We hear that yet in *axe* for *ask*. Sometimes both *x* and *sc* were used side by side. This *sc* became in M.E. *sh* in many words (*scip*, *fisc=ship*, fish).

Cnihtum. The *ht* was regularly written *ght* in M.E., and then the *gh* was dropped in pronunciation. The Scotch still retain the sound before *t*. So *cniht* became *knight*, and is now *nait*, although spelled in M.E. fashion. The *h* before *n* (also *g* in *gn*) was dropped late in the seventeenth century. The German still has it.

In O.E. we have very few *k*'s, but in M.E. we used *c* before *a*, *o*, *u*, and *k* before *e*, *i*, and in *kn=cn*.

It is very noticeable how the increasing stress on the root-syllable of words caused a weakening of all unstressed vowels to an indistinct sound, which is represented by *e* in E.M.E. Compare the first and second extracts for examples. The next great and very general change was the loss of this indistinct sound, so that *loaves*, a disyllable, is

now pronounced *louvv*. In other cases (*gefyllede*) we have lost as many as three of these indistinct sounds, for we now say *fld*. Because of this general loss, the English language may now be said to be, as far as native words are concerned, a monosyllabic tongue.

213. Gender.—In O.E., as in modern German, a noun was either masculine, feminine, or neuter, but in only a few words can we tell from the endings the gender of the word. For instance, *hlāf*, *fix*, *heofon*, *cniht*, are masculine, *lāf* and *wilie* are feminine. The demonstrative pronoun *sē*, *sēo*, *ðæt*, used as an article, often helps us to decide, but not always, even in the singular (e.g., genitive and dative), and never in the plural, where one form does for all genders. Sometimes the ending of the nouns helps us, as in *hlāfas* and *fixas*, because *as* is the ending of the nominative and accusative plural of some masculine nouns. But *wilian* might be masculine, feminine, or neuter, if we were to judge by the ending. Because of the development of stress, the endings became more and more alike, and were of no use to distinguish gender. The difficulty became worse when the demonstrative pronoun, because of its lack of stress, changed to *one* form for all cases and genders. Thus it came about that nouns lost their gender for the most part. This great change was all the easier because in those times, the eleventh and twelfth centuries, there was no printing to set the forms as there has been from Caxton's time on. The loss of gender was in reality a great blessing for the language.

214. Inflection of Nouns.—As in Modern German, so in O.E., nouns were declined either strong or weak. Strong masculines, for the most part, ended in *-as* in the plural, nominative and accusative, strong feminines in *-a* or *-e*, and strong neuters in *-u*, or were without ending, e.g., *sceāp*, sheep. All weak nouns had the same plural ending, *-an*. A few nouns of very frequent occurrence change the vowel of the root because of *mutation* or *umlaut*; *fōt*, *fēt*: M.E. *foot*, *feet*. (See App. A for fuller details.)

215. Inflection of Adjectives.—There are no examples in this selection, but, as in Modern German, adjectives

were declined strong or weak. Even in M.E. this was largely done away with, because of weakened endings. In comparison, the great majority added *-or*, *-ost*, modern *-er*, *-est*. A very few showed mutation, in M.E. a bare half-dozen, and in Mn.E. only *elder*, *eldest*.

216. **Conjugation of Verbs.**—Verbs were *strong* or *weak*, *past*, *past-present*, *present*, or *anomalous*. (See App. B.)

217. **Word-Order.**—As in the German, word-order in O.E. prose was modelled largely on the Latin, because so many Latin works of literature, as well as the Bible, were translated. But, by comparing the various versions, the student will see that the nearer we come to Mn.E. the more direct and logical word-order becomes. Nowadays we may say that word-order makes *case*, as in *gold crown*, a crown of gold. The famous statement, *It is me* for *It is I* (older still, *It am I*), is defended by some grammarians because our regular word-order in sentences is *subject, verb, object*.

218. **Syntax.**—The dative absolute, *hlafum* and *fixum onfangenum*, the O.E. way of expressing the ablative absolute, is given up, and replaced by a time-clause or a direct statement.

Case-relation gives way to prepositional phrases: *leornign-cnihtum*, to his disciples.

Partitive genitives were common in O.E.: *hläfa*, *läfe* (43), but are replaced by *of*-clauses, or the construction changed. The purpose is simplicity and directness.

The dependent sentence, *ðæt hī . . .*, has given place to the infinitive of purpose.

The author hopes that the teacher and student, encouraged by this comparison of the various versions, will be spurred on to independent work in this study of the growth and structure of our great mother-tongue. Another set of selections is given in parallel columns, which the student is advised to compare. He will doubtless find other examples of change in addition to those noted above, for instance, in verbs, pronouns and conjunctions.

219. St. Matthew ii. 3-8.

O.E. VERSION, ABOUT
A.D. 1000

3. ðā Herōdes ðæt gehyrde, ðā wearð hē gedrēfed and eal hierosolim-waru mid him.

4. And ðā gegaderode Herōdes ealle ealdras ðæra sacerda and folces wriṭeras and āxode hwær Cr̄ist ācenned wāre.

5. ðā sædon hī him, "On iudeiscere Bethlēm; witodlice þus ys āwriten ðurh ðone witegan.

6. And þū, Bethlēm, iudea-land, witodlice ne eart þū læst on iudea ealdrum; of þē forðgæð sē heretoga sē ðe recð mīn folc israhel."

7. Herōdes ðā clypode on sundersprāce ðā tungel-witegan and befrān hī georne hwanne sē steorra him atēowde.

8. And hē āsende hī on Bethlēm and þus cwæð: "Farað and āxiāð geornlice be ðām cilde and ðonne gē hyt gemētað cýðað eft mē ðæt ic cume and mē tō him gebidde."

EARLY M.E. TEXT,
ABOUT A.D. 1175

3. ðā Herōdes ðæt gehērde, ðā warð hē gedrēfeð ænd eal Hierosolime-wære mid him.

4. Ænd ðā gegaderede Herōdes ealle ealdres ðæra sacerdæs ænd folkes wriṭeres, ænd āxode hwær cr̄ist akenned wāre.

5. ðā sægden hyō him. on iudeissere bethlēm. Witodlice þus ys awritten ðurh ðanne witegan.

6. Ænd þū bethlēm indea - land, witodlice ne eart þū læst on iudea ealdran. of þē forðgæð sē heretoga sēðe recð mīn folc israel.

7. Herōdes ðā cleopede on sunder-sprāce ðā tungel-witegan, ænd befrān hyō georne hwanne sē steorre heom atēowede.

8. Ænd hē asende hȳe tō bethlēm ænd þus cwæð. "Fareð ænd āxiāð geornlice be ðām childe ænd ðanne gē hit gemēteð, kyðað eft mē ðæt ich cume ænd mē tō him gebidde."

WYCLIF-PURVEY VER-
SION, A.D. 1388

3. But King Eroude herde, and was trublid and al jerusalem with him.

4. And he gaderide togidre alle the prynces of prestis, and scribis of the puple, and enqueride of hem, where Cr̄ist shulde be borun.

5. And thei seiden to hym, In Bethleem of Juda; for so it is writun bi a profete,

6. And thou, Bethleem, the lond of Juda, art not the leest among the prynces of Juda; for of thee a duyk schal go out, that schal gouerne my puple of Israel.

7. Thanne Eroude clepide pruyeli the astromyens, and lernyde bisili of hem the tyme of the sterre that apoperide to hem.

8. And he sente hem in to Bethleem, and seide, Go ȝe, and axe ȝe bisili of the child, and whanne ȝee han foudun, telle ȝe it to me, that Y also come, and worschipe hym.

KING JAMES' BIBLE,
A.D. 1611 (FASCIMILE)

REVISED VERSION, 1881

THE TWENTIETH CENTURY NEW TESTAMENT

3. When Herod the king had heard *these things* he was troubled and all Hierusalem with him.

4. And when he had gathered all the chiefe Priests and Scribes of the people together, hee demanded of them where Christ should be borne.

5. And they said vnto him, In Bethlehem of Judea; For thus it is written by the Prophet;

6. And thou Bethlehem in the land of Juda, art not least among the Princes of Juda: for out of thee shall come a Gouernour, that shall rule my people Israel.

7. Then Herod, when he had priuily called the Wise men, enquired of them diligently what time the Starre appeared;

8. And he sent them to Bethlehem, and said, Goe, and search diligently for the yong child, and when ye haue found him, bring me word againe, that I may come and worship him also.

3. And when Herod the king heard it, he was troubled, and all Jerusalem with him.

4. And gathering together all the chief priests and scribes of the people, he inquired of them where the Christ should be born.

5. And they said unto him, In Bethlehem of Judæa, for thus it is written by the prophet,

6. And thou Bethlehem, land of Judah, art in no wise least among the princes of Judah; for out of thee shall come forth a governor, which shall be shepherd of my people Israel.

7. Then Herod privily called the wise men, and learned of them carefully what time the star appeared.

8. And he sent them to Bethlehem, and said, Go and search out carefully concerning the young child; and when ye have found him, bring me word, that I also may come and worship him.

3. When King Herod heard the news, he was much troubled and his anxiety was shared by the whole of Jerusalem.

4. So he called together all the chief Priests and Rabbis in the nation and began making enquiries of them as to where the Christ was to be born.

5. "At Bethlehem in Judæa," was their answer, "for it is said in the Prophet:

*6. And thou, Bethlehem in Judah's land
Art in no way least among
the chief towns of
Judah:
For out of thee will come
a Chieftain—
One who will shepherd
my people Israel."*

7. On this, Herod secretly sent for the Magians, and found out from them the exact length of time that the star had been in sight.

8. He then sent them to Bethlehem with directions to go and make careful enquiry about the child, "and as soon as you have found him," he added, "bring me word, that I, too, may go and do homage to him."

SECTION IV.—ENGLISH SPELLING

220. As we all, young and old, know by dear experience, there seems to be no rime or reason in the way words are spelled in our English tongue. The causes of this confusion are mainly two. First, we are dealing with sounds that have been changing gradually and almost imperceptibly for fifteen hundred years and more. The changes are due to the imperfect vocal organs, tongue, teeth, lips, mouth and throat, and the more or less imperfect hearing of those who learn the sounds from generation to generation. No two sets of organs are just exactly alike, any more than are the leaves of an oak, a maple, or a beech. Therefore slight, very slight changes take place in each generation, and, as we may reckon about four generations to a century, the changes at last, after a lapse of, say, five centuries, become very marked. Furthermore, we have changed our *tempo*, or speed in speaking, and have developed the habit of speaking with our mouths much more nearly closed than did the people of King Alfred's day. So it has come about that teachers interested in good pronunciation are saying that there should be a training in the proper production of speech-sounds or in *phonetics*, i.e., *in the athletics of speech-sounds*.

In the second place, we have always had to work with an imperfect alphabet when we have tried to represent these sounds in writing or in print. In the Old English times we did not have so much difficulty, because each vowel of the alphabet, with the use of marks of length, could be made to represent a certain sound fairly well. The consonants, too, on the whole, did the same. There was then no printing to hinder necessary changes.

221. In the Middle English times confusion began. We adopted a number of French signs, we made a great many changes in the sounds of our speech, and therefore we became possessed of several signs for one sound. Toward the end of the period, in Caxton's time, printing was introduced, which gradually led to the desire of using one form

for a word under all circumstances. Generally speaking, it is the M.E. form of the word that has been retained, very often with a decided change of accent or stress. This means that our spelling of very many words is that of four or five hundred years ago, sometimes more.

222. During modern times, from about 1500, we have, however, made many changes in our sounds, and these changes are for the most part unrepresented. This is because of the tyranny of the printed word, or, in other words, because of the natural conservatism of the people, who hesitate for various reasons to make the necessary changes in the forms. In this respect we are less progressive than the French, whose Academy from time to time makes changes in the forms which are accepted by the people. From 1887 to 1902 the various German-speaking states held conferences, at which they arrived at a system of spelling German words which is very largely phonetic.

The great confusion in English spelling has, from time to time, led Englishmen the world over, but never with governmental backing, to suggest "Spelling Reform." For instance, there was published in 1917 by J. M. Dent and Sons, "An English Pronouncing Dictionary on Strictly Phonetic Principles," by Daniel Jones, which is very interesting and helpful. There is also a "Simplified Spelling Society," and lists of words have been issued by a Simplified Spelling Board, some of whose suggestions have been adopted by various newspapers in the United States.

223. The great difficulty is that we have at least forty-five sounds in our language, and only twenty-six letters to represent these sounds. For instance, we say *kæt*, *neim*, *fa:ðər*, or *fa:ðə*, and *ɔ:l*, but we write or print them as *cat*, *name*, *father* and *all*. That is, *a* does duty for four different sounds. We pronounce *faind*, *pin*, *mafi:n*, *siv*, *bizi*, and write *find*, *pin*, *machine*, *sieve*, and *busy*. Great as this confusion is in stressed syllables, it is infinitely worse in unstressed syllables. There the sound of *i* may be represented by *i*, *ie*, *y*, as in *family*, *families*, by *e* in *benefit*,

roses, *ei* in *forfeit*, *ey* in *money*, *a* in *separate*, *ay* in *Sunday*, *ai* in *mountain*, and in many more ways. These are only some examples of our difficulties in spelling, difficulties which arise because it is centuries behind our pronunciation. Is there any remedy?

224. As already noted, the French and German nations have dealt with their difficulties in a very scientific way, through the Academy or the government, but the English people have never taken the matter up seriously. Under the present changed conditions, and with the present outlook for the world-importance of our speech, some reform might well be made. But even the French and Germans have not attempted to impose a phonetic alphabet upon the people, as has been proposed by scholars. There is, however, a benefit to be derived from an intensive study of phonetics that well repays any trouble. The small child can learn the phonetic alphabet readily; and by writing it, all would become interested in the sounds represented by the different signs, and be made aware of the slight shades of difference in pronunciation which prevail in *any* class in *any* school. And once accustomed to the signs and the words written with these signs, anyone can read as fast by phonetic writing as by the forms now in use. Examine a stanza from Wordsworth's "Daffodils" in phonetic type:

Ai wondəd lounli əz ə klaud
 ðət flouts on hai əs veils ənd hilz,
 (h)wen əl ət wəns ai sɔ: ə kraud
 ə houst əv goulden dæfədilz;
 bəsaid əs leik, biniθ əs tri:z,
 flatʃɪŋ ənd da:nσɪŋ in əs bri:z.

This looks strange, and because it is strange it may not please the eye; but it has the great advantage of one sign for one sound. For instance, *ai* stands for *I*, (*h*)*igh*, *i* in *beside*, as all have the same sound. The *a* of *wandered* and of *all*, the *o* of *on*, and the *aw* of *saw* have all the same quality, indicated by *ə*, the rounded form of *a*, and length is shown by the colon. The *a* of *dancing* is a different sound in England (South) from that given by Canadians, who

would probably write *dænsing*. This difference of pronunciation, properly indicated, would cause no one difficulty and would give interest, especially if the historical development of these differences were ever studied. The *o* of *lonely*, *host* and *golden*, usually called long *o*, is really a diphthong for which the sign is *ou*. But if we study German, we remember that the *o* of *golden* in German is *not* long, and that we are dealing with something peculiarly English in pronunciation, though the words and their meanings are alike. The inverted *ə* represents the unstressed vowel in the weak words in the lines, *as*, *at*, *a*, *of*, *the*, *and*, *that*, and also of the weak or unstressed syllables in *golden*, *daffodils*. But the child learning to spell has to remember that sometimes we use *a*, sometimes *o*, and sometimes *e*, and also other signs almost too numerous to mention. Instead of *ə*, Canadians would probably write *æ* in *and*, *at*, *as*, *that*. As *ou* is already employed we use *au* for the diphthong we hear in *cloud* and *crowd*. Pronounce these, and note that we do say *au*; that is, we begin with the *a* in *father* and finish with *u* in *full*. But substitute the *æ* of *man* for *a*, and you will get the diphthong that is often heard both in England and America. *Ei* represents the diphthong (long *a*-sound) of *vales*, *lake* (and also of *name*, *strange*, *player*, *fail*). In the English transcription *r* is left out in *wandered*, *o'er*; *wandered* is correctly represented as having but two syllables. *Æ* in *daffodils* is a very useful sign which was used in King Alfred's time, but unfortunately allowed to drop out of the language. No double consonants are used, as we do not pronounce them, as do the Italians in many of their words. (*H*)*wen*, the O.E., and still the correct, order instead of *wh*, shows that a good many English speakers, especially in the South of England, omit the *h*. In O.E. there were four such combinations, *hl*, *hn*, *hr*, and *hw*. The Germans have discarded the *h* in all, we in three cases, except in Southern England, where all are generally dropped. *C* is discarded in the phonetic alphabet, and the proper sign used for each of the sounds represented by it now; so *klaud*, *wans*. Our *s* also does duty for the sound properly

given by *z*; so *hilz*. The *u* of *fluttering* represents a different sound from that of *u* in *full*, and an inverted *a* fills the want: *ŋ* represents the sound of *ng* in *singer*, etc.

All this new alphabet emphasises the fact that the sounds of the language make the language, and not the written or printed forms, with all their imperfections. Keeping this in mind, we can follow very easily the historical development of the sounds, or the changes in pronunciation from period to period.

A brief list of very frequent evolutions:

O.E.	wi:n	M.E.	wi:n	Mn.E.	wain	(M.E. spelling, wine)
"	ba:t	"	bo:t	"	(bo:t) bout	(,, „ [late], boat)
"	fe:t	"	fe:t	"	fi:t	(,, „ feet)
"	fo:d	"	fo:d	"	fu:d	(,, „ food)
"	hu:s	"	hus	"	haus	(,, „ house): [Fr. ou=ū])
"	dre:əm	"	dre:m	"	(dre:m) dri:m	(,, „ [late], dream)
"	wind	"	wi:nd	"	wa:nd	(,, „ wind)

225. **Phonetic Transcriptions.**—In order to give teachers and students a clearer view of the changes in pronunciation from O.E. times to the present, a few selections are given in phonetic form. The transcription of the O.E. is my own, in that from Chaucer I am largely indebted to Sweet, in that from Shakespeare to Vietor for the sixteenth-century pronunciation, for the modern to Professor D. Jones.

The following points are to be noted:

The sign *x* represents the sound of the German ch, or *ch* in *loch*. The *a* represents a sound of the same quality as *ai*, but *short*, i.e., not given so much time. The *ɛ* has the sound of *ê* in the French *tête*. The sound of *o* in the sixteenth century is rather like that of *u* in the present-day *nut* than that of *o* in the modern *not*. In O.E. double consonants are to be pronounced. The *r* is trilled strongly in O.E., somewhat less so in Chaucer, and still less in the sixteenth-century transcription. In Canada it is not dropped, as in S.E., therefore I have not omitted it as Jones does. In the transcriptions *no consonant is silent*, therefore the *k* of *kno:ɪ* and the *l* of *swil:d* must be pronounced.

ST. MATTHEW, II. 3-8 (Old English)

3. θa: herodes θæt gehirde θa: wærθ hei gedreived
ɔnd æl hierasalim-waru mid him.

4. ɔnd θa: gegaderade herodes ælle ældras θæra
sa:kerda ɔnd falkes wrüteras ɔnd aksade hwær kri:st
a:kenned wæ:œ.

5. θa: sæ:dn̄ hi: him, on iudeiskere beθle:m; witadliske
θus is aiwriten θurx θanne witegan.

6. ɔnd θu: beθle:m iudea-lond witadli:ke ne æart θu:
læ:st on iuda æeldrum; of θe: farθgæ:θ sei heretaga sei
θe rekθ mi:n falk israhel.

7. herodes θa: klipade on sunderspræike θa: tu:gel
witegan ɔnd befran hi: järne hwænne sei steorra him
æte:awde.

8. ɔnd hei a:sende hi: on beθle:m ɔnd θus kwæθ, faraθ
ɔnd aksiaθ järnljike be θa:m kilde ɔnd θanne je: hit
gemeitaθ ki:θaθ eft me: θæt ik kume ɔnd me: to: him
gebidde.

CHAUCER: PROLOGUE TO THE "CANTERBURY TALES"

Lines 1-18 (Globe edition)

Whan that Aprille with his shoures soote
 The droghte of March hath perced to the roote,
 And bathed every veyne in swich licour
 Of which vertu engendred is the flour;
 Whan Zephirus eek with his swete breath
 Inspired hath in every holt and heeth
 The tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne
 Hath in the Ram his halfe cours yronne,
 And smale fowles maken melodye,
 That sleepen al the nyght with open eye,—
 So priketh hem nature in hir corages,—
 Thanne longen folk to goon on pilgrimages,
 And palmeres for to seken straunge strandes,
 To ferne halwes, kowthe in sondry londes;
 And specially, from every shires ende
 Of Engeland, to Caunterbury they wende,
 The hooly blisful martir for to seke,
 That hem hath holpen whan that they were seeke.

hwan ðat aprille wið (h)is suires soite
 ðe druxt of martj hað persed to ðe rote,
 and baiðed evri vein in switj likur
 of hwitj vertu end ȝendred is ðe fluor;
 hwan zefirus eik wið (h)is sweete bresð
 inspired hað in evri holt and heit
 ðe tendre kruppes, and ðe junge sunne
 hað im ðe ram his halfe kuiris irunne,
 and smale fules maiken meladie
 ðat sleþpen al ðe nixt wið ȝopen iie,—
 soi prikeð hem natir in hir koradȝes,—
 ðan longen folk to goon ȝn pilgramadȝes
 and palmers for to seken strandȝe strandes
 to ferne halwes, kuð in sundri londes;
 and spesjali, from evri suires ende
 of egeland, to kaunterbri ðei wende,
 ðe holi blisful martir for to seke,
 ðat hem hað holpen hwan ðat ðei wer seike.

SHAKESPEARE: " JULIUS CÆSAR "
 (from Antony's Oration)

Pronunciation of the sixteenth century

*Æ*ntoni. frendz, ro:mænz, kuntrimen, lend mi iur e^rz; ei kum tu beri se:zær, not tu præiz him.
 ðe i:vil ðæt men du: livz æfter ðem;
 ðe gud iz oft intered wiθ ðæir bo:rnz;
 so let it bei wiθ se:zær. ðe no:bl briutus
 hæθ tould iu se:zær wæz æmbisi-us;
 if it we:r so:, it wæz ə gri:vus failt,
 ænd gri:vusli hæθ se:zær ænserd it.
 he:r under le:v ov briutus ænd ðe rest,—
 for briutus iz æn onoræbl mæn;
 so ar ðæi a:l, a:l onoræbl men,—
 kum ei tu speik in se:zærz fiuneral.
 hi wæz mi: frend, fæi:θful ænd dʒust tu mi: :
 but briutus sæiz hi wæz æmbisi-us;
 ænd briutus iz æn onoræbl mæn.
 hi hæθ brout mæni kæptivz ho:m tu ro:m,
 hwu:z rænsomz did ðe d ʒenræl koferz fil:
 did ðis in se:zær se:m æmbisi-us?
 hwen ðæt ðe puir hæv kreid, se:zær hæθ wept:
 æmbisi-on su:ld bi: mæd ov sterner stuf:

ei speik not tu dispru:v hwæt briutus spo:k,
 but he:r ei æm tu speik hwæt ei du kno:.
 iu a:l did luv him o:ns, not wiðu:et ka:z:
 hwæt ka:z wiθhouldz iu ðen tu murn for him?
 o: dʒudʒment! ðu:ə art fled tu briuti: be:sts,
 ænd men hav lost ðæir reizn. beir wið mi:;
 mi hært iz in ðe kofin ðeir wið se:zær,
 ænd ei must pa:z til it kum bæk tu mi:.

SHAKESPEARE: " JULIUS CÆSAR "

(from Antony's Oration)

As pronounced to-day

Ætoni. frendz, roumənz, kʌntrimən, lend mi: juər iərz;
 ai kʌm tu beri sɪzər, nɒt tu preiz him.
 ðə iːvəl ðæt men du: livz æftər ðem;
 ðə gud iz ɔft intərəd wið ðeər bounz;
 sou let it bi: wið sɪzər. ðə noubl brūtəs
 hæθ tould ju: sɪzər wəz əmbiʃəs;
 if it wər sou, it wəz ə griːvəs fɔlt,
 ænd griːvəsli hæθ sɪzər ənsərd it.
 hiːr ʌndər liːv əv brūtəs ænd ðə rest,—
 for brūtəs iz æn ɔnərəbl mæn;
 sou ar ðei ɔɪl, ɔɪl ɔnərəbl men,—
 kʌm ai tu spiːk in sɪzərз fjuːnərəl.
 hi: wəz mai frend, feiθful ænd dʒʌst tu mi:;
 bʌt brūtəs sez hi: wəz əmbiʃəs;
 ænd brūtəs iz æn ɔnərəbl mæn.
 hi: hæθ brɔɪt meni kæptivz houm tu Roum,
 huːz rænsəmz did ðe dʒenrəl kɔfərз fil:
 did ðæt in sɪzər siːm əmbiʃəs?
 hwen ðæt ðə puːr hav kraid, sɪzər haθ wept:
 əmbiʃən fud bi: meid əv stərnər stəf:

ai spiːk nɒt tu dispruːv hwot brūtəs spouk,
 bʌt ai æm hiːr tu spiːk hwot ai du: nou.
 ju: ɔɪl did ləv him wəns, nɒt wiðaut kaɪz:
 hwot kaɪz wiθhouldz ju: ðen tu moːern for him?
 ou dʒʌdʒment! ðau aɪrt fled tu brūtɪʃ bɪsts,
 ænd men hæv lost ðeər riːzn. bær wið mi:;
 mai haɪrt iz in ðə kəfin ðeər wið sɪzər,
 ænd ai mʌst paɪz til it kʌm bæk tu mi:.

SECTION V.—STRESS IN ENGLISH

226. We are so accustomed to stressing or accenting our words and our sentences upon the important syllable, very generally the first, or upon the syllable which we wish to make important, sometimes by way of contrast, that it is very difficult for us to imagine that our system of stress has become what it is by a long evolution. Very great changes have taken place in our speech because of this development through twenty or twenty-five centuries, during most of which English has been a separate and spoken language. In the earliest parent-Teutonic, from which our speech is descended, the accent was generally a movable one, changing from syllable to syllable as in the classical Greek, being one of pitch, of a musical nature, and producing a singing effect. The speech was evidently slow and deliberate, recitative in effect, so that all the vowels and diphthongs in a word, no matter how long, had their full sound and quality even to the end-syllable. None of them were slurred over and made indistinct as they are to-day. For instance, in the word *habaidedum*, a Gothic verb-form, which must have had its parallel form in prehistoric English, *i.e.*, in English before A.D. 675, we have to give the *u* of the final syllable its rightful sound, although it is so far away from the root or important syllable. But by degrees the change that took place in all the Germanic languages from the earlier or musical accent to one of stress or force, a dynamic stress, has through the centuries caused, first the weakening, and finally the dropping out, of the syllables that became more and more unstressed as the root-syllable became more and more stressed. So the equivalent of *habaidedum* in English had by King Alfred's time become *hæfdon*, in Chaucer *hadde(n)*, in Shakespeare *had*, and now we may say *We'd better be going*. This is only one of very many words which show the effect of stress-change upon the length of the word and upon the sounds of which it is composed. Let the student

pronounce in the ordinary way, at the usual rate of speed, the words *spirit*, *fathom*, *organ*, *able*, and he will find that, in spite of the different spellings, the vowel of the second syllable has in each case very much the same sound. Again, let the student or teacher read aloud a few lines of our oldest poetry, Beowulf for example, follow it up by a few lines from Chaucer's "Prologue to the Canterbury Tales," and then by some lines from Tennyson or Kipling, and again it will be found that in the first there is a decided recitative effect, that in Chaucer the *tempo* or speed is quicker, but not nearly so hurried as in Tennyson. It will also be noted that there are many silent vowels in the speech of to-day, *very* few in Chaucer, and none in the O.E. poetry. As compared with the language of Chaucer, our speech contains very many more one-syllable words. *Name* and *swete* were then pronounced as two syllables, but now as one syllable *neim*, and *swi:t*. *April* had three syllables then, *Aprille*, and *melody* four, *melodie*.

Not only have we shortened a great many of our words, but all O.E. diphthongs became long vowels in M.E. New diphthongs were formed in the latter period, which have since become long vowels; and short vowels, because of stress, were made long, and later still became diphthongs as in O.E. *namē*, M.E. *na:mē*, Mn.E. *neim*. All through this section we are speaking of the *sounds*, not of the *signs* which so imperfectly represent our sounds in the modern *printed* language. The *spoken* language is our standard. Because of the examples given, and many others, it is now very difficult to learn to spell in English. In O.E. the spelling was phonetic, according to sound, in M.E. mainly so, but in Mn.E. the spelling has remained very stationary, while stress and pronunciation have changed a great deal. A very plain case is that of a number of words in *-our* (English) *-or* (American). For instance, in M.E. *honour* was stressed generally on the second syllable, and the *ou* represented the long *u*-sound, thus: *honoúr* (*honu:r*). To-day we stress the first syllable and say *ónor*, so that *or* comes nearer to representing the sound of the second syllable than does *our*. But that is only one of the many

differences between spelling and pronunciation to be found in our speech.

The so-called "slovenliness" in speech is largely due to this constant change in stress and speed that is going on, and probably will go on in our language. The Old English people spoke with the vocal organs much more active, the mouth much more open, like the German people of to-day, but the modern English-speaking person can and does speak with the lips much more rigid, the mouth much more closed. This change in the use of the vocal organs has, like all other changes, been very gradual and very slow. It cannot be said to be an aid to clear enunciation.

But not only vowels, diphthongs and consonants have been affected by this change in stress, but the whole sentence and the syntax of our language has felt the influence. It is because our grammars have not hitherto paid enough attention to this very important question that it is emphasised in this book.

227. Stress in Old English.—In the O.E. period the general principle was to stress the first or important syllable of the single word, or of the compound, or of combinations such as *gōd man*, good man, which has much the force of a compound. But compounds of prepositions and nouns like *ofdūne*, off the hill, stressed the first syllable of the noun as they do yet in *adown* and others. If a preposition preceded the verb it was stressed, as *inn gān*, to go in, but if it followed the verb it was unstressed. But when used with nouns, they precede always as prefixes, and are therefore stressed, as *íngang*, entrance, *bispell*, example, and many others. That is, we had in O.E., as in modern German, many *separable* prefixes. We find also in verbs *inseparable* prefixes, *for-* in *forgiéfan*, forgive, *be-* in *besettan*, beset, which, like *ver-*, *be-* in German, never have the stress. But in nouns these prefixes carry the stress, as in *fórwyrd*, destruction, in contrast to *forweórðan*, to destroy. It would be well for the student to look over the words in *be-*, *for-*, *fore-*, *over-* and *under-* in a good dictionary, to see how we stress these compounds to-day.

228. Stress in Middle English.—In native English words

the same general principles hold in this period as in O.E. But *al-*, *mis-*, *un-*, which have the stress in O.E., lose it in M.E., and we must say *almighty*, *misdeéd*, *uncoúth*.

Scandinavian and Dutch words follow generally the same rules as the native English. Words introduced from the French have the accent of that language during most of the M.E. period. There is no difficulty with words of one syllable as *cas*, case, or with *face*, face. But when we read Chaucer, we find we must say *nature*, *licoúr*, liquor, *esséne*, *honoúr*, *sesoún*, season, although we sometimes may say *hónour* and *sésoun*. By the sixteenth century all these words have been made fully at home with us, and have adopted the English stress. But words compounded with particles, such as *degréé*, degree, rank, *disése*, discomfort, still keep the same stress (*degréé* and *disése*). We have also changed the stress of *condicióun* (four syllables) to *condition* (three syllables), and in numbers of similar words.

229. Stress in Modern English.—It is to be hoped that the student has grasped some of the very old principles of stress which were active in the Old and Middle English periods. These are still very active in our speech, and will continue. The addition of so many French words to our vocabulary introduced difficulty. During the present modern period we have imported thousands of words, and are adding them each year. We are still further increasing our difficulties. With the spread of our speech, notably in America, differences have arisen, such as in *illustrate*, which we sometimes hear stressed on the first syllable, sometimes on the second.

Nowadays subordinate words all have weak stress, as in the sentence, *He is a man of the world*,¹ where only *man* and *world* are stressed. As has already been noted, we keep the O.E. stress on the root-syllable in inflected or derived words, as in *fisher*, *fishery*, *fisherman*. So also we stress after the old rule words which have a weak first syllable,

¹ For a more detailed treatment of stress in modern English the teacher and student are referred to Sweet, *A New English Grammar*, pp. 879–932, and Jespersen, *A Modern English Grammar*, Chapter V.. The latter has a wealth of illustrations.

as *arise*, *become*. We do this, too, in French words, as *avow*, *defend*. And we now have made such words as *balcony*, formerly *balcóny*, conform to this rule. But we can tell that some French words like *machine* are new introductions, because of their stress, and also because of the sound of the *i*. So also *caprice*, *canoe*, and many others. Sometimes a word has a double stress, one familiar and one less familiar. So *August* month and *Augústus*, proper name. We also have quite a number of pairs of words, one an adjective or noun, and the other a verb, with two stresses, such as *absent*, *abstract*, *frequent*, *object*, and many others. There is also a stress for *contrast* which causes us to change an accent, as "I said *óppose*, not *síppose*," "not *síbjective* but *óbjective*."

A feature of Mn.E. is the use of *even* or *level* stress, by means of which the two words are made of equal or nearly equal importance, as in a *fine house*, a *good man*, where in the older English only one word, *fine* or *good*, would have the chief stress. But many phrases made up of separate words in O.E. have now become compound nouns, and as such do not develop even stress; for example, *bláck bérries*, which is now *blackberries*, and *high street*, *thórn tree*, which are now felt, if not written, as compounds.

APPENDIX A

A BRIEF HISTORICAL REVIEW OF ENGLISH DECLENSION AND CONJUGATION

230. Nouns.—The following are the main types of declension for O.E. nouns in the language of King Alfred :

STRONG DECLENSION WEAK DECLENSION.

Masculines

<i>Sing.</i>	N. stān, <i>stone</i>	sun-u, <i>son</i>	fōt, <i>foot</i>	nam-a, <i>name</i>
	G. —es	—a	—es	—an
	D. —e	—a	fēt	—an
	A. —	—u	fōt	—an
<i>Plu.</i>	N. —as	—a	fēt	—an
	G. —a	—a	fōt-a	—ena
	D. —um	—um	—um	—um
	A. —as	—a	fēt	—an

Neuters

<i>Sing.</i>	N. scēap, <i>sheep</i>	scip, <i>ship</i>	cild, <i>child</i>	ēag-e, <i>eye</i>
	G. —es	—es	—es	—an
	D. —e	—e	—e	—an
	A. —	—	—	—e
<i>Plu.</i>	N. scēap	—u	cild-ru, cild	—an
	G. —a	—a	—ra	—ena
	D. —um	—um	—rum	—um
	A. —	—u	—ru, cild	—an

Feminines

<i>Sing.</i>	N. lār, <i>lore</i>	luf-u, <i>love</i>	gōs, <i>goose</i>	tung-e, <i>tongue</i>
	G. —e	—e	—e	—an
	D. —e	—e	gēs	—an
	A. —e	—e	gōs	—an
<i>Plu.</i>	N. —a,e	—a,e	gēs	—an
	G. —a	—a	gōs-a	—ena
	D. —um	—um	—um	—um
	A. —a,e	—a,e	gēs	—an

NOTES

1. In King Alfred's English there were only *five* nouns that were declined like *sunu* of the masculines, and *three* like *fōt*; all the rest had either the *as*-ending of the strong declension in the nominative plural, or the *an*-ending of the weak.

The neuters followed *scēap*, if long in the stem, or *scip*, if short or of more than one syllable. Only two were weak, and very few were declined like *cild*, whereas in German this *r*-plural has become a great favorite for neuters.

In the feminines few followed *gōs*, all others being either like *lār* and *lufu*, or weak.

2. The student will see at a glance that there are many cases in the singular, even in O.E., which end in *e*. These would actually be added to, when, in M.E., because of lack of stress, *a (o)*, *u* would weaken to the sound also represented by *e*; *-as* and *-an* would also become *-es* and *-en*, as in the 1175 text. There would then naturally develop a sort of struggle between *-es* and *-en* as a sign of the plural; and we see the effects of this in M.E., where we have *ashen* ashes, *toon* toes, *foon* foes, *shoon* shoes, *rosen* roses, and quite a number of others. So even in the Devon speech of to-day the people say *primrosen* for primroses and *housen* for houses. But in the North Country the final *n* of nouns and verbs was very early dropped off; thus there was no sign left for the weak nominative plural, and the influence of the Northern forms prevailed to make the *es*-plural the surviving form.

The English *s*-plural was well established as early as 1200, and the *s*-plural of the great number of French words borrowed in afterwards only made it more fixed, if possible.

3. Feminine nouns had to make a little more change to follow the fashion, viz., in the genitive singular which had no *es*-ending. Such a phrase as *Lady-day* shows the older genitive singular of *lady*. In Chaucer we find *by my fader soule*, where *fader* is the old unchanged genitive singular found in O.E. in names of relationship.

4. It is not strange, when so many forms ended in *e* in M.E., that the ending should be introduced also into the nominative singular of such words as *ston(e)*, *wif(e)* (O.E. *stān*, *wif*). It has nothing to do with the length of the preceding vowel originally.

231. **Adjectives.**—In O.E., as in Modern German, adjectives had a strong and weak declension; but in M.E., as in the nouns, so many endings had become alike that we may pay little heed to the common *e*-ending.

In comparison, the O.E. adjective might have mutation in the comparative and superlative. Again as in Modern German the list was small, viz. : *brād* broad, *eald* old, *feorr* far, *geong* young, *grēat* great, *hēah* high, *lang* long, *sceort* short, and *strang* strong.

In Chaucer the list is smaller: *old, long, strong*; and now we have only *elder* and *eldest*, and the noun-form *elder*.

Some adjectives, as *good, evil, little*, have always been irregular in comparison.

232. Personal Pronouns.—Discarding the O.E. dual forms, which were lost by the thirteenth century, we may place side by side the singular and plural forms (O.E., M.E., Mn.E.).

OLD ENGLISH

SINGULAR

	First Person	Second Person	Third Person		
			M.	F.	N.
N.	ic	ðū	he	hēo	hit
G.	mīn	ðīn-	his	hire	his
D.	mē	ðē	him	hire	him
A.	mec, mē	ðec, ðē	hine	hīe	hit

PLURAL

N.	wē	gē	hīe, hī
G.	ūser, ūre	ēower	hiera, hira
D.	ūs	ēow	him, heom
A.	ūsic, ūs	ēowic, ēow	hīe, hī

MIDDLE ENGLISH (CHAUCER)

SINGULAR

N.	I (ich, ik)	thou	hē	shē	(h)it
G.	—	—	his	hēr(e)	his
D.	mē	thee	him	hēr(e)	him
A.	mē	thee	him	hēr(e)	(h)it

PLURAL

N.	wē	yē	they
G.	—	—	hir(e), hēr(e)
D.	ūs	you	hem
A.	ūs	you	hem

MODERN ENGLISH

SINGULAR

N.	I	you (thou)	he	she	it
D., A.	me	you (thee)	him	her	it

PLURAL

N.	we	you (ye)	they
D., A.	us	you	them

NOTE

From a comparison of these various declensions the student will observe the tendency to simplification, also the mixture of forms in the modern speech. Chaucer used the Scandinavian form *they*, but *them* was introduced only in Mn.E.

Its, as the possessive of it, came in about Shakespeare's time.

Can the student explain the italicised forms in "Take 'em off" and "I didn't see *un*" (dialect)?

233. **Verbs.**—For strong, weak, and past-present verbs see Appendix B. The *anomalous*, or *abnormal* verbs *do*, *go* and *be* are given below:

Do

PRESENT

O.E.	M.E.	Mn.E.
1st Pers. dō	dō (do:)	do
2nd Pers. dēst	dōst	dost
3rd Pers. dēð	dōth	does
Plural dōð	dōn	do

PAST

dyde (a reduplicated form)	did	did
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Go

PRESENT

O.E.	M.E.	Mn.E.
1st Pers. gā	gō (go:)	go
2nd Pers. gäst	gōst	goest
3rd Pers. gäð	gōth	goes
Plural gāð	gō(n)	go

PAST

Sing.	ēode	yede, wente	went
Plural	ēodon	yede, wente	

PARTICIPLE

gegān	goon	gone
-------	------	------

Be

This verb was very irregular in O.E., having two full forms in the present indicative and also in the present subjunctive.

PRESENT

O.E.	M.E.	Mn.E.
1st Pers. eam, bēom	am	am
2nd Pers. eart, bist	art	art
3rd Pers. is, bið	is	is
Plural sind, bēoð	bē(n) (bēth, ārn)	are

In the modern subjunctive present we use only *be*.

PAST

	O.E.	M.E.	Mn.E.
1st Pers.	wæs	was	was
2nd Pers.	wāre	were	wast
3rd Pers.	wæs	was	was
Plural	wāron	were(n)	were

PAST PARTICIPLE

gewesen	been	been
---------	------	------

Sometimes we hear *you wuz* for *you were*, which is not strange when we remember that this form is the only one we now use in the past tense plural of any verb, which is different from the form of the singular.

THE CONJUGATION OF THE STRONG VERBS

In O.E. there were *four* principal parts in the strong verb; for instance, *drīfan* drive (infin.), *drāf* drove (past sing.), *drifon* (past plur.) and *drifen* driven (past participle). In M.E. there was the tendency to use only *one* form for the past tense which has become the rule in Mn.E.; so *drive, drove, driven*. In Mn.E. there has developed the fashion of using only *two* stems in many verbs. So we say *spin, spun* (for both past tense and past participle), where we used to say *spin, span, spun*. Some people say *drink, drunk, drunk* too, but this is not yet allowable. This tendency also accounts for *do, done, done*, and *go, went, went*, and similar levellings which are not permissible.

THE PRESENT TENSE-FORMS

drifan, drive, drive (draiv).

	O.E.	M.E.	Mn.E.
1st Pers.	drif-e	driv-e	drive
2nd Pers.	—(e)st	—est	—est
3rd Pers.	—(e)ð	—eth	—es
Plural	—að	—e(n)	—e

In the King James Version the *eth*-ending was used, and was retained in the Revised Version, although it no longer corresponded to usage.

In the weak verbs the endings of the present tense were slightly different in the two classes, but lack of stress soon made them alike, and their later history is that of the strong verb-forms.

PRESENT PARTICIPLES

The ending in O.E. was *-end, bindend*; in M.E. and Mn.E. it gave way to *-ing, binding*.

APPENDIX B

THE VERB

234. In Old English there were some 332 simple strong verbs, which belonged to seven different classes, represented in modern English by *drive*, *choose*, *bind*, *steal*, *give*, *take*, *fall*. A great many of these have disappeared altogether during the course of the centuries, and numbers of others have become weak. A few have been added from French or Scandinavian, and a very few weak verbs have become strong. There are now only about 86 simple strong verbs, counting *abide* (*bide* is weak), *begin* and *forsake*, of which no simple forms exist. In some cases there is great uncertainty as to the correct form, some good forms are archaic, and in many cases there are double forms. In all cases constant appeal has been made to the "New English Dictionary" and where it is incomplete to the "Standard" and others. Because it is not easy for the High School student to understand why *fly* and *freeze* belong to the same class, or *bind* and *swim*, it has been thought best to give an alphabetical list of the strong verbs now in use, and then a list of the verbs according to the old classes. Teachers and students who become interested in the historical development of the strong verbs will make good use of the second list. A list is also given of isolated strong past tenses or past participles of verbs otherwise weak.

235. Modern Strong Verbs.

(a) In alphabetical order.

(Rare or older forms are in brackets; also compound verbs where the simple forms occur.)

Infinitive	Past	Past Participle
abide	abode (abided)	abode (abided)
arise	arose	arisen
(awake)	awoke (awaked)	awoke, awaked (awoken)
bear	bore (bare)	borne
beat	beat	beaten (beat)
(beget)	begot (begat)	begotten (begot)
begin	began (begun)	begun
(behold)	(beheld)	(beheld beholden)
(bestride)	bestrode, bestrid	bestritten, bestrid, be- strode
bid	bade, bad, bid	bidden, bid
bind	bound	bound (bounden)
bite	bit	bitten (bit)
blow	blew	blown (blowed)
break	broke (brake)	broken

Infinitive	Past	Past Participle
chide	chid (chode)	chidden, chid (chided)
choose	chose	chosen
cleave (split)	clove (clave), cleaved, cleft	cloven, clove, cleaved, cleft
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
dig	dug, digged	dug, digged
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank (drunk)	drunk (drunken)
drive	drove (drove)	driven
eat	ate, eat (et)	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
(forbid)	(forbade forbad, forbid)	(forbidden, forbid)
(forget)	(forgot)	(forgotten, forgot)
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got (gat)	got (gotten)
give	gave	given
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung	hung
heave	heaved, hove	heaved, hove
hide	hid	hid, hidden
hold	held	held (holden)
know	knew	known
lie	lay	lain
light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit
ride	rode (rid)	ridden
ring	rang, rung	rung
rise	rose (ris)	risen
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
shake	shook	shaken
shear	sheared, shore	sheared, shorn
shine	shone (shined)	shone
shoot	shot	shot (shotten)
shrink	shrank (shrunk)	shrunk (shrunken)
(shrive)	(shrove)	(shriven)
sing	sang, sung	sung
sink	sank, sunk	sunk (sunken)
sit	sat (sate)	sat
slay	slew	slain
slide	slid	slid (slidden,滑倒了)
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
smite	smote	smitten
speak	spoke (spake)	spoken

Infinitive	Past	Past Participle
spin	spun, span	spun
spit	spat (spate, spat)	spit (spat)
spring	sprang, sprung	sprung
stand	stood	stood
(stave)	(staved, stove)	(staved, stove)
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stank, stunk	stunk
stride	strode	stridden (strid)
strike	struck	struck (stricken)
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven (strived)
swear	swore (sware)	sworn
swim	swam, swum	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
tear	tore (tare)	torn
thrive	throve (thrived)	thriven (thrived)
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod (trode)	trodden, trod
wake	woke, waked	waked
wear	wore (ware)	worn
weave	wove (weaved)	woven, wove (weaved)
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung (wringed)	wrung (wringed)
write	wrote	written

(b) A list of strong verbs according to classes.

CLASS 1 :

Abide, arise, bite, chide, drive, hide, (light), ride, rise, shine, (shrive), slide, smite, stride, strike, strive, thrive, write.

CLASS 2 :

Choose, fly, freeze, shoot.

CLASS 3 :

Begin, bind, cling, dig, drink, fight, find, fling, grind, ring, run, shrink, sing, sink, sling, slink, spin, spring, stick, sting, stink, string, swim, swing, win, wind, wring.

CLASS 4 :

Bear, break, cleave, come, heave, shear, speak, stave, steal, swear, tear, tread, wear, weave.

CLASS 5 :

Bid, eat, get, give, lie, see, sit, spit, (quoth), (was).

CLASS 6 :

Forsake, shake, slay, stand, take, wake.

CLASS 7 :

Beat, blow, draw, fall, grow, hang, hold, know, throw.

NOTES

1. Of the modern strong verbs the following were originally weak :

Chide, hide, light, stave, stick, string, wear, spit. *Light* and *stave* have weak forms, and *string* in *stringed instruments*.

2. The following were introduced from other languages :

Fling, sling, take, thrive, *from the Scandinavian*; dig, strive *from the French*; and shrive, very early *from the Latin*.

3. Such pasts and past participles as *abided*, *awaked*, *hanged* show that strong verbs still tend to become weak.

4. The forms *bare*, *begat*, *brake*, *spake*, and others, are older pasts supplanted by newer forms made in analogy with the past participle.

5. *Drunk*, *rid*, *rung*, *sung*, etc., are forms analogous to the past participle which have or have not been able to exist alongside of the older, or have not yet supplanted the older as have *spun*, *stung*, etc.

6. Old strong past participles used as adjectives are :

Born, bounden, drunken, forlorn, shorn, shrunken, stricken, sunken.

7. *Quoth* is an old past, now used as a present also, and is treated under the past-presents.

8. A long historical note would be required to give the full reason why *was* and *were* belong to Class 5 of the strong verbs. There is now no infinitive or past participle for this past (see the verb *be*).

9. *Worth* in "Woe worth the day" (Scott), is an obsolete form, belonging originally to Class 3 (German *werden*).

236. The following verbs, originally strong, have become weak :

Ache, ba^ke, bark, bequeath, bow, braid, brew, brook, burn, burst, carve, chew, climb, creep, crow, crowd, delve, ding, dive, dread, fare, flay, flee, flow, fold, fret, glide, gnaw, grave, greet, gripe, hele (*conceal*), help, hew, knead, lade, laugh, leaf, let, lie (tell an untruth), low (of cattle), mete, melt, mourn, mow, quake, read, rive, row, rue, salt, seethe, shape, shave, shed, shove, sigh, sleep, slit, smart, span, spew, spurn, starve, step, suck, sup, swallow, sweep, swell, thrash (or thresh), twit, wade, walk, warp, wash, wax (*grow*), weep, weigh, whine, wreak, writhe, yell, yelp, yield.

Of these verbs the following have forms which reveal the old strong conjugation :

Past Tenses : clomb (climb), crew (crow), dove (dive), rove (rive).

Past Participles : baken (bake), carven (carve), folden (fold), graven (grave), holpen (help), hewn (hew), laden (lade), molten

(melt), mown (mow), riven (rive), sodden (seethe), shapen (shape) shaven (shave), sown (sow), swollen (swell), un-washen (wash), waxen (wax), wreathen (writhe).

Some of these forms are still current (in use) by various classes of speakers. The student of the history of the language does not ask whether they are "good" or "bad," "correct" or "incorrect," he must seek an explanation or a reason for their existence. A study of the dialects of England, Scotland and Ireland, and of colloquial speech in North America, will reveal a multitude of older and newer forms for both the strong and the weak verbs.

Some weak verbs form a past participle in *n*. So *show shown*, *sew sewn*, *strew strewn*.

237. It will be noted that if the total of the present strong verbs be added to that of the strong verbs which have become weak, only some 170 of the 332 strong verbs in Old English are accounted for. That means that the rest, almost half, have passed out of the language. So, for instance, *niman*, German *nehmen*, gave way in the later Middle English to *take*, but has left traces in *numb* (past participle), *nim*, a thief, one of Falstaff's friends, *nimble* and *benumb*. The dialects preserve many that are not found in standard speech.

Even of those that remain, strong or weak, many are *archaic* (*shrive*), or are practically *obsolete*, as *delve*, *fare*, *grave*, *hele*, *lade*, *mete*, *wax*, and others.

Others are *obsolescent*, or dying out, as *chide*, *slay* (*kill* is now used), *strive* (try), *thrive* (grow), *rive* (split), *seethe* (boil).

The nineteenth century saw many revivals, of which *carven* is an example.

238. **Weak Verbs.**—The characteristic ending of the past tense and past participle of weak verbs is *-d* or *-ed*. But there are many exceptions, even in printing, and far more in pronunciation, which after all is the test. For instance, we spell *dealt*, *felt*, *spilt*, *spoilt*, *dreamt*, *burnt*, *meant*, *crept*, *kept*, *slept*, *swept*, *wept*, although we may also write *spilled*, *spoiled*, *dreamed*. We say *dipt*, and many authors have written it; so also *acurst*, *curst*, *addressst*, *blest*, *claspt*, *clipt*, *confest*, *crept*, *crost*, *distrest*, *drest*, *dropt*, *exprest*, *fixt*, *leapt*, *past*, and many others. Our spelling might be reformed in this respect without doing violence to pronunciation or etymology.

Some verbs in *d* or *t* have by assimilation done away with the endings, so that all three forms, infinitive, past tense, and past participle, are alike. Such are, for example, *burst*, *cast*, *cost*, *cut*, *hit*, *hurt*, *put*, *rid*, *set*, *shed*, *shut*, *split*, *spread*, *sweat*, *thrust*. For a number of these, children, good exponents of the working of the natural laws in language, make new past tenses such as *bursted*, *hurted*, *costed*, *shedded*, *sweated*, etc.

It is curious that in dialect such conjugations are heard as *hit*, *hat*, *hat* (so *sit*), or *spit*, *sput*, *sput*. These newly-created

forms show an instinctive feeling for the need of some difference being made between present and past forms.

Other verbs, among them some still called strong, make a difference between the vowel of the present and those of past tense and past participle. Such are *bleed*, *breed*, *feed*, *speed*, *meet*, *lead*, *light* (*lit*), *shoot*, *read*, and in colloquial speech *heat* and others. This difference is not always indicated by the spelling.

Some verbs in common use ending in *d* change the *d* into *t* in the past tense and past participle. So *bend*, *build*, *lend*, *rend*, *send*, *spend*, *wend* (past of *go*), but *wended*, *bended*, are also used; *gird* has *girded* or *girt*, so *gild*. But *wield* is always *wielded*.

Other weak verbs may be said to have exceptional forms : *cleave* (*cleft*), *flee* (*fled*), *have* (*had*), *hear* (*heard*), *lay* (*laid*), *leave* (*left*), *lose* (*lost*), *make* (*made*), *pay* (*paid*), *shoe* (*shod*), *bereave* (*bereaved* or *bereft*).

Irregular weak verbs numbered some twenty-three or more in Old English, of which the following remain: *beseech* (*besought*), *buy* (*bought*), *seek* (*sought*), *sell* (*sold*), *teach* (*taught*), *tell* (*told*), *think* (*thought*), *methinks* (*methought*). *Work* has an old form *wrought*, but is now *worked*; *distraught* is an old participle of *streich*; *boughten* is often heard of purchased articles in distinction to home-made, as *boughten bread*. *Catch*, *caught*, has been added from the French.

239. Past-present Verbs.—There were twelve of these in Old English, so called because the present tense is really an old strong past (shown by the similarity of the first and third persons singular) used with a present meaning. A newer, weak past takes its place. The following are still found : *wot* (*wist*), *mote* in “so mote it be.” These are obsolete to-day. *Dare* (*durst*), *shall* (*should*), *may* (*might*), are in everyday use, and *will* (*would*) has been made to conform. *Dare*, used positively, is weak; *maun* is the Scotch form of the old plural of *may*, *magon*; *own* is weak; the weak parts of *own* and *mote* are now used with a present meaning (*ought* and *must*); *quoth*, past tense of a verb *queath*, say (cf. *bequeath*), may also be used as a present.

Latin, Greek and German have similar verbs.

240. Anomalous Verbs.—See the paradigms (Sect. 223) for *go*, *do*, *be*.

APPENDIX C

DERIVATION

241. In Section II. attention was called to the numerous *loanwords* or borrowings from the Latin, French and other languages, as well as to the native or English words. A great many of these are monosyllables, but a very large proportion are compounds of more than one syllable. To *derive* these, that is, to explain the formation and origin of the parts, it would be necessary to know all the *prefixes* and *suffixes* as well as the *root* words. It is not proposed in this sketch to give long lists to be memorized, but to give a brief discussion of some of the more important and a few lists through the study of which the student may go on to use a dictionary such as the *Concise Oxford* and find out more for himself.

Some prefixes are *dead*, that is, no longer felt as such or no longer used. Such are the *a-* in *achieve*, *aboard*, *ante-* in *ancient*, *ob-* in *offer*, *per-* in *perish*, *for-* in *forbid*. Suffixes that are dead are *-ock* in *bullock*, *-l* in *nail*, *-m* in *blossom*, *-fold* in *manifold*, *-k* in *lurk*, *-ard* in *coward*, *-th* in *truth*, *broth*.

On the other hand a great many prefixes are *living*; especially *be-* in some senses, *bedewed*, *fore-* in *forearm*, and many others. *Living suffixes* are, for example, *-age* in *coinage*, *breakage*, *-ative* in *talkative*, *-able* in *get-at-able*.

Again some, both prefixes and suffixes, are not used in as many senses as they once were, such as *be-* and *-age*, and some are tending to become very much used, as *-ive*.

Prefixes are verbal particles placed before a word which alter its meaning: *confer*, *differ*, *refer*. Suffixes are letters or syllables, sometimes words, which, appended to a word, alter the meanings or functions: *woodcraft*, *wooden*, *woody*. A *root*, a term often used very loosely, is here defined to be a syllable, or combination of syllables, expressing a general, sometimes very vague, notion which may be common to a number of words. Some of these roots can be traced in the various Indo-Germanic languages and are therefore called *Indo-Germanic* (Aryan); for example, *sed*, *duk*, *ag*. Some roots are found only in the various Teutonic languages and are then called *Teutonic*, as, for example, *bain-* (*bone*, German *Bein*), *folk-* (*folk*, German *Volk*), and others are English alone,

as those of *dog, bad, fuss, shrew, champ, chide, chat, dodge, doily, dredge, dye*.

To these roots in the various languages certain vowel or consonant endings were added to form *stems*. It is therefore possible to speak of *a-, i-, u-* stems of nouns, which are not necessarily real words. To these stems must be added the various terminations of declension and conjugation, or the inflectional elements, before words can be arranged into sentences. The comparison of the forms in the selections in Section III. has already shown that in the English language many of these have been lost. This loss began very early, so that even the Old English words show it. For example, *acre*, O.E. *acer*, must at a much earlier period, even before our present era, have been *akroz*, which corresponds to the Latin *ager* and the Greek *agros*; the root is *ag*. So *sit*, O.E. *sittan*, corresponds to German *sitzen*, Latin *sedēre* and Greek *hezomai*, the root is *sed*; from the root *duk*, *deuk*, comes the Latin *dūcere*, the O.E. *tēon* and the German *ziehen*. It is necessary to make a study of *comparative grammar* in order to thoroughly understand all these relations. Especially it is necessary to know what is called *Grimm's Law* and *Verner's Law* to explain fully the relation of *brother* to the German *Bruder*, or of *thing* and *tide* to the German *Ding* and *Zeit*. They are the same words, having the forms resulting from the evolution of each language. But all this very interesting study is beyond the limits of this brief introduction to the history of the English language.

In Section II. attention has been called to the loss of a great number of English words and the introduction of Latin or other words for them. For example, there was a very numerous family of words formed from the root of *beran* carry, bear. So *āberan* endure, suffer, *ætberan* carry (off), *beran* carry, wear, *beberan* supply, *forberan* endure, tolerate, *foreberan* prefer, *forðberan* bring forward, produce, *geberan* bear (a child), *onberan* carry off, plunder, *oðberan* carry away, *tōberan* disperse, *underberan* support, *ymbberan* surround; also nouns such as *bearn* child, *gebyrd* birth, *byrðen* burden; also adjectives as *gebyrde* innate. Only *beran* and *forberan* have lived down to the present, *bearn* is the Scotch *bairn*, *byrðen* has been changed to *burden*, and *gebyrd* has given way to the Scandinavian *birth*. But the ideas expressed were not lost, and to express them there were borrowed, because of French influence or through the study of Latin, a number of words having the same root in its Latin form *fer*; *offer*,

borrowed even in Old English times, *confer*, *defer* and *differ*, originally the same word, *infer*, *prefer*, *proffer*, *refer*, *suffer*, *transfer*.

Another large family represented in Old English is the verb *tēon* draw, and its derivatives found in the German *ziehen* and its great connection. Very few of these are left, such as *tow*, *tow-line*, *tie*, *wanton*, *team*; *tug* is Scandinavian, *tuck*, *touch* and *tocsin* come through the French. To express the same ideas recourse has been had mostly to the Latin root expressing the same idea. This accounts for the use of *adduce*, *conduce*, *conduct*, *duke*, *deduce*, *educe*, *induce*, *introduce*, *produce*, *reduce*, *seduce*, *traduce*, and a large number of others.

The Old English words were not always lost in the process. Sometimes they were given a place beside the loan-word, sometimes limited in meaning. What is the difference between *I was drawn to him* and *I was attracted to him*? Again the word *mild* meant generous, prodigal in the Old English, but *rich*, *large* and *generous* have come in, and each has its place with limited meanings. A very frequent development is that the English word has a *literal*, *home-y* sense and the foreign word is used figuratively or in an abstract sense. Consider the legal phrase, *he drew up an abstract!* Too little has been done in the fascinating field of the development of meanings in English, and yet this knowledge is very necessary to the fullest understanding and enjoyment of Chaucer, Shakespeare, and indeed of all other writers.

PREFIXES

242. The prefix **a-**, has some fifteen sources: English *a-*, *on-*, *of-*, *and-*, *at-*, *ge-*, as in *arise*, *abed*, *adown*, *along*, *ado*, *alike*; French in Middle English times as *a(d)dress*, *abridge*, *amend*, *acumber* now *encumber*; Latin *ab-*, *ad-*, in *avert*, *ascrībe*; Greek *a-*, in *atlas* and *an-*, with a privative or negative force as in *adamant*, *apetalous*, *amorphic*, *a-sexual*. This latter is the only *living* form of *a-* in the language of to-day.

Latin **ab-**, from, lives only in a few scientific words; *abs-*, is a variant, *abstract*; *adv-* in *advance* is ultimately from *ab-*.

Latin **ad-**, to, at, for (*a-*, *ab-*, *ac-*, *af-*, *ag-*, *al-*, *an-*, *ap-*, *as-*, *at-*), is found in *achieve*, *abbreviate*, *accord*, *admit*, *affect*, *aggressive*, *allow*, *announce*, *append*, *arrogate*, *assent*, *attract*. By a curious "reformed spelling" of the sixteenth century

a great many words were refashioned to resemble the Latin and some mistakes were made. Thus the English *a-* of *accursed*, *acknowledge*, *afford*, *affright* and *allay* were made to look as if the Latin *ad-* were the prefix.

The Latin **ambi-**, about, on both sides, and its Greek sister **amphi-**, are both dead : *ambidexterous*, *amphitheatre*. Greek **apo-** (*aph-*), from, off, is also dead ; *apology*, *aphæresis*. Greek **ana-**, back, again, anew, is found in *anabaptist*, *anachronism*, *anagram*, *analysis*, *anatomy*.

Two living prefixes are very interesting. Latin **ante-**, before, *antecedent*, *antedate*, *ante-reformation*, *ante-room*, also appears as **anti-** in *anticipate*, *anti-brachial*, as **anci-** in *ancient*, **ant-**, in *antagonist*, and **an-**, in *ancestor*. Derivatives with **ante-** came into the language after 1500 and are probably coined after the example of *antecedent* and its family. With this prefix is often confused Latin and Greek **anti-**, opposite, against : *anti-Christian*, *antidote*, *antiseptic*, *anti-English*. Only three of its derivatives came in before 1500, *Antichrist*, *antiphon* and *antiphoner*, a book of anthems. Although both of these prefixes are foreign in origin, yet their use is now so very common that they might almost be called English. There are many like them.

Arabic learning was very important in the Middle Ages, especially in science, mathematics and medicine. Therefore it comes about that we have many words beginning with **al-**, the Arabic definite article ; so *alchemy*, the chemistry, *alcohol*, *alcove*, *alembic*, *algebra*. It appears as **a-** in *apricot*, as **ar-** in *artichoke*, *arsenic*, as **as-** in *assegai*, as **el-** in *elixir* and as **l-** in *lute*.

The Latin **bi-**, doubly, twice, appears in *bigamy*, *biennial*, *bicarbonate*. It is used freely with English words, *bi-weekly*, showing that it is considered almost as a native prefix. It appears as **ba-**, *balance*, as **bis-**, *biscuit*, and also in the distributive form **bin-**, *binocular*. **By-**, *by-gone*, *bypath*, *by-product*, *byway*, explains itself. The important prefix is the English **be-**, found in more than 1500 words and unlimited in use. It has a variety of meanings which the student can best study from some examples : *bespatter*, *berhyme*, *behead*, *beset*, *bereave*, *bedeck*, *besiege*, *beseech*, *becalm*, *bemoan*, *bedim*, *bewitch*, *befriend*, *becloud*, *bestir*, *beguile*, *betoken*, *bewilder*, *betroth*, *be-speak*, *behold*, *bequeath*, *benumb*. One very frequent use is making transitive verbs from nouns and adjectives.

The derivatives of Greek **cata-**, down, away, etc., with the exception of *catalogue*, *catarrh* and *catacomb*, are all of modern

introduction or formation: *cataclasm, catalectic, catapult, catastrophe*. It appears as *cat-* in *catechism*, as *cath-* in *catholic*. Latin prefixes are *circu(m)-*, around, *circumnavigate, circuit*; *contra-*, against, *contradiction*, in only a few words. The English form *counter-*, from the French *contre-*, is a living particle: *counteract, country, counter-irritant*. *Cis-*, on this side of: *Cisalpine, cis-Atlantic*. Lastly *eom-* (*co-, col-, com-, con-, cor-, cour-*), is found in about one-third of the words under C: *co-operate, collect, compare, confer, correct, council*. More rarely it appears as *coi-, coil, cou-, cousin, cu-, cull, cur-, curry*. *Co-* is the living form: *co-worker, co-heir, co-agent*.

Two prefixes occur in the form *de-*. The first is from the Latin *dē-*, down, off, away from: *decline, delegate, despoil*. It also reverses the action of the verb as in *deform, decompose, decentralize*, and in this sense is a living prefix. Some verbs with this prefix originally, especially those that came through the French, have remodelled it into *dis-* as *dis-arm, discolour*. The student of French will find it interesting to compare French verbs, adjectives and nouns in *dé-, dés-*, with their English equivalents. The second is from the Latin *di-, dis-*: *deface, defame, defray*. In most words the *di-* has been restored: *distress*; or *dis-* has been substituted as in *dismiss, differ* which exists alongside of *defer*, with now a difference of meaning.

With these two *de-* prefixes must be compared the living prefix *dis-*, apart, found as *des-* in *descant* and as *dif-* before *f-*. The *dif-* form is no longer living but *dis-* is very extensively used, even with English words: *disconnect, disjoin, disbench, disease, disfrock, disable, disaffection*. Its meanings are now confused in large part with those of *de-*, and even the form, as in *deluge*. It is disguised as *s* in *spend*.

Greek *di-*, double, is found in *digraph, disyllable*; also in technical terms in natural history and crystallography, but especially as a living prefix in chemistry: *dibasic, di-chromatic, digamy*.

Greek *dia-*, through, is seen in *diameter, dialogue*.

The important prefix under E is the Latin *ex-*; *extend, exert, exchange*. Variants are *e-* in *edit, educe, ef-* in *efface, effuse, es-* in *escape, escheat*; peculiar forms are the *iss-* in *issue, s-* in *sample, a-* in *amend* and *as-* in *astonish*. The Greek form is *ek-*, as *ec-* in *eccentric, ecstasy*, as *el-* in *ellipse* and *ex-* in *exodus*.

Greek *en-* is found in *energy*, as *em-* in *empiric*. The Latin *in-* occurs in *embrace*.

The *e-* in *enough* is for the O.E. *ge-*; *genōh*; in *elope* it stands for a French *a-* ultimately from *ex-*, and in *esquire*, *eschew*, *espy*, *especial*, *espousal*, *estate*, *establish*, *escribe* it represents an *e-* prefixed to help pronounce words beginning with *sg*, *sc*, *sp*, *st*, which seemed difficult initial combinations to the French from whom we borrowed the words.

Enter- from *entre*, the French form of Latin *inter-*, between, is found in *enterprise* and *entertain*. After about 1750 it gave way in all other words to **inter-**. The student might compare with advantage the words in a French dictionary with their corresponding forms in English.

The Greek **epi-**, upon, *eph-*, *ep-*, is found in *epigram*, *epilepsy*, *ephemeral*, *epoch*, *epitome*; **eso-**, within, in *esoteric*, and **exo-**, without, in *exogenous*. All these are found in the many new coinages of scientific terms.

Latin **extra-** is self-explanatory: *extradite*, *extraordinary*. It occurs in *strange*, *estrangle* as (*e*)*str-*.

With the exception of **for-** in *forfeit*, *forclose*, generally written *foreclose*, French loans where *for-* represents the Latin *foris* outside, most of the prefixes under F are English. **For-**, intensive, away, abstention, bad, prohibition, was in early times very common, but now remains in a very few words: *forlorn*, *forget*, *forgive*, *forbear*, *forgo*, *forsake*, *forswear*, *fordo*, *forbid*. On the other hand **fore-**, *forearm*, *foresight*, and **forth-**, *forthcoming*, *forthwith*, are living and in extended use. **Fro-** in *froward* is the Scandinavian form of *rom*.

The only prefix under G is the Scandinavian **gain-** in *gainsay*. The Old English form of this prefix was quite common but has now disappeared.

There are only two prefixes under H, both Greek: **hyper-**, above, beyond, in *hyperbole*, *hypercritical*, and **hypo-**, under, below, slightly, in *hypochondria*, *hypocrite*, *hypotenuse*, *hypothesis*.

In Old English the vocabulary under I was very small and there was only one prefix, **in-**, which is still found in *ingoing*, *indeed*, *instead*, *instep*. In modern times the word-list has been increased greatly because of the great number of derivatives in Latin: **inter-**, among, between, a *living* prefix: *intervene*, *inter-collegiate*, *inter-wreath*; **intra-**, within, on the inside: *intramural*; **intro-**, to the inside: *introduce*; and especially of **in-**, in, into, and also with a negative force, *not*. So *innate*, *inquest* and many others. It appears as *il-* in *illude*, *im-* in *immune*, as *ir-* in *irrigate*. Sometimes it is found in the French form *en-*, *em-*, as *enclose*, *embrace*, which is written *am-* in *ambush*, *a-* in *anoint*. The negative

force is seen in *innocent*, *ig-noble*, *illegal*, *immortal*, *infirm*, *irregular* and *enemy*. No one now feels that this prefix is foreign as it is joined to English words, as *inset*, *inland*, *inlay*, *inmate* and dozens of others. In a few words one is often at a loss whether to spell after the French or the Latin form : *encase*, *enclose*, *encrust*, *endorse*, *endue*, *enfold*, *engraft*, *engrain*, *engroove*, *enisle*, *enmesh*, *enquire*, *enquiry*, *ensure*. To-day the preference seems to be for the *en-* forms except in *inquire*, *inquiry*; *ensure* and *insure* are differentiated in meaning; a carpet is *ingrained*. Students must not be surprised, however, to find variation in the spelling by different authors : they will also find it interesting to listen to the pronunciations of speakers.

There is only one prefix under J, **juxta-**, near: *juxtaposition*.

K was not an Old English letter and is now used only before *e*, *i* (*y*), and *n*: *keen*, *king*, *ky* cows, *knee*, *know*. Many words which belong here are to be found under C. There are no prefixes.

There are no prefixes under L.

The wordlist under M is very large, a goodly number being English, but many more from the French or Latin. There are few prefixes. Interesting is **mis-** (1), wrongly, amiss, English in origin and used not only with English words : *mislead*, *mislay*, *mistake* (Scand.), *misguide*, *misuse*; **mis-** (2), from the French *mes-*, Latin *minus*, with the same sense but used with a smaller list of words : *mischance*, *misnomer*.

The Greek **meta-** (*meth-*, *met-*), among, with, after, is found in *metabolism*, *metaphor*, *metaphysical*, *method*, *meteor*.

Under N it is interesting to note a number of words which have an initial *n* which is really due to the carrying over of the *n* of *an*: *a newt* is really *an ewt*, *a nickname*, really *an ekename*, an additional name. Did you say *an ice-house* or *a nice house*? Contrariwise *an auger* is really *a nauger*, *an apron* is *a napron*, *an umpire* is *a numpire*. Do you say *an orange* or *a norange*? Shakespeare has *my nuncle* for *mine uncle*.

The prefix **non-**, not, came late into use but is now unlimited in application and really an English prefix : *non-committal*, *non-jury*, *non-union*.

English prefixes prevail under O. They are: **Off-**, stressed form of the preposition *of*, as in *of(f)fal*, *offspring*; **on-** in *onslaught* and often as *a-* in *asleep*, *abed*; **or-**, negative or intensive, in *ordeal* and *orts*, remains, what is not eaten. This last prefix is quite common in German as *ur-*, *Urteil*, *Urkunde*, *Urlaub*, and was very common in Old English.

The wordlist under O has been enormously extended by the words in **out-** (some 1,250) and in **over-** (some 2,100 odd). In *outrage* we find French **outre**, beyond, and the suffix **-age**.

The Latin **ob-**, in the way of, and numerous other senses, occurs also as *o-*, *oc-*, *of-*, *op-*, *os-*: *object*, *omit*, *occur*, *offend*, *oppress*, *ostensible*.

Even in Old English the wordlist under P was borrowed largely from the Latin. In the present-day vocabulary more than one-fifth of the loans are Greek combinations and derivatives. The most common Greek prefixes are: **para-**, beside, beyond, "wrong": *paragraph*, *paradigm*, *paradox*, *paraphrase*, as *pa-* in *palsy* alongside of *paralysis*, *par-* in *parody* and *pal-* in *palfrey*; **peri-**, around: *perimeter*, *periscope* and in many medical and other scientific terms; **pro-**, before: *prologue*; and **pros-** towards, in addition, as *prosody*, *prosthetic*.

The Latin prefixes are **per-**, through, "maximum," as in *percentage*, *perform* and in chemistry *peroxide*; it appears as *par-* in *parson* (same word as *person*), *pardon*, *parboil*, as *pel-* in *pellucid*, as *pil-* in *pilgrim*, as *po-* in *position*. **Post-**, after, a *living* prefix, appears in *postpone*, *postgraduate*, *post-date*, as *puis-* in *puisne*, as *pu-* in *puny* (after-born). **Pre-**, before, is found in *prevent*, *pre-arrange*, as *pro-* in *provost*; it is also a *living* particle, unlimited in use to form verbs and verbal nouns. **Pro-**, before, instead of, favouring, is also a *living* English prefix to all intent, as in *pro-Boer*, *pro-German*, *proficient*; it occurs as *prod-* in *prodigal*, as *prof-* in *proffer*, as *pru-* in *prudent* (provident), and in its French forms *pur-* in *pursue*, *por-* in *portray* and *pour-* in *pourtray*. **Preter-**, beyond, past, is found in *preternatural*, *preterite*.

The list of native English words under Q is very small, representing the *cw*-words of Old English such as *cwic*, *cwacian*, *cwealm*, *cwēn*, *cwellan*, *cwencan*, now spelled with the French *qu*- as *quick*, *quake*, *qualm*, *queen*, *quell*, *quench*. There are no prefixes.

The chief prefix under R is **re-**, **red-**, back, again: *recur*, *recompense*, *redeem*, *reddition*. It not only appears in many compounds borrowed from the Latin or the Romance languages, but also is treated as a *living* prefix and prefixed not only to modern borrowings from Latin or French words but also to English and Scandinavian, as *relay*, *rely*, *remain*, *remind*, *renew* or *recall*, *recast*. It may be used with any verb or verbal derivative as occasion requires. It is often spelled with a hyphen to indicate its use, thus *re-pair*

(not *repair*). It is pronounced *ri:* (rē) in such a sense, otherwise as *re* in *recollect* and *ri* when the next syllable carries the stress as in *recover*. The prefix **retro-**, backwards, back again, appears in *retrospect*, *retrograde*, as *rear-* in *rearguard*.

The wordlist under S has always been the largest under any letter of the alphabet. In Old English there were no prefixes but numbers of combinations. In modern English are a number of prefixes. Latin are: **se-**, **sed-**, away, apart, in *seclude*, *sedition*; **sine-**, without, in *sinecure*; **subter-** in *subterfuge*; **super-**, over, above, in *superman* (the French form is *sover-* in *sovereign*, the Italian *sopr-* in *soprano*), as **sur-** in *survive*. By far the most important is **sub-**, under, **su-**, **suc-**, **suf-**, **sug-**, **sum-**, **sup-**, **sur-**, **sus-**: *subject*, *su-spect*, *succumb*, *suffix*, *suggest*, *summon*, *suppose*, *surrogate*, *sustain*. **Sub-** is also used as a living prefix without change in medical terms: *substernal*, below the breastbone, *subnormal*, below normal; further in *subacid*, slightly acid, *subsoil*, underlying soil, *subway* (often called *sub*), *subheading*, *subeditor* (also *sub*), *subconscious*, not quite conscious, *sublet*, to let to a second party, *submarine boat* (also *sub*).

The Greek **sun-**, in its Latinized spelling **syn-**, occurs in *synonym*, as *sy-* in *system*, as *syl-* in *syllable* and as *sym-* in *sympathy*.

No one suspects that the *t* of *twit* stands for *at* (O.E. *ætwitan*, to reproach), that *t* in *tawdry* is short for *saint* (*St. Audry*) or the *t* of *tautology*, saying the same thing, is the Greek *to*, the. **Thorough-**, through, explains itself in *thoroughfare*, and so does the **to-** of *to-day*. The Latin **trans-**, beyond, is a very common form, as in *transfer*, *transmit*, and appears as *tran-* in *transcend*, as *tra-* in *tradition* and in its French form *tres-* in *trespass*. It is used as a living prefix, across, in *transatlantic*, *transoceanic*, *transalpine*.

Prefixes beginning with *u* are: Latin **ultra-**, beyond, in *ultramontane*, *ultra-fashionable*; English **under-** in *underbid*, *underexpose*, *undergrowth*, *undertone*, *undertime*, *underdone*, *underman*, with various meanings, also *understand* and *undertake*; English **up-** in *upheave*, *upstairs*, *upstart*, *upbraid*. The English **un-**, unlimited in use, gives a variety of meanings, for example, *unloose* (intensive), *unnerve*, *unarm*, *unroof*, *unearth*, *unking*, *unartistic*, which differs from *inartistic*, *un-English*, *unspeakable*, *unconcern*. In *unto*, *until* the sense of *un-* is much like the *oð* of Old English, *up*, *up to*, *up til*.

With- in *withstand* preserves the original meaning of *with*, against; it means back in *withhold*, *withdraw*.

A SELECTED LIST OF LATIN WORDS

Here follows a selected list of Latin words and roots which are represented in English. For a more complete list the student may consult Skeat, *Etymological Dictionary*. So also in the case of the Greek list on p. 251.

<i>ac</i> , sharp—acid, eager.	<i>claudere</i> , to shut—conclude,
<i>æquus</i> , equal—adequate, equi-vocal.	<i>cilius</i> , slope, declivity, pro-clivity.
<i>agere</i> , to drive—enact, exigent.	<i>colere</i> , to till—colony, agriculture.
<i>amare</i> , to love—amicable, ini-mical.	<i>coquere</i> , to cook—concoct, pre-cocious.
<i>anima</i> , breath—animate, mag-nanimous.	<i>cord-</i> (cor), heart—concord, courage.
<i>annus</i> , year—anniversary, super-annuate.	<i>corpus</i> , body—incorporate, corslet.
<i>aptus</i> , fit—adapt, inept.	<i>creare</i> , to create—recreation.
<i>aqua</i> , water—aquarium, aque-duct.	<i>credere</i> , to believe—credible, miscreant.
<i>arma</i> , arms—alarm, armada.	<i>crescere</i> , to grow—accretion, in-crement.
<i>audire</i> , to hear—audience, obe-i-sance.	<i>cruc-</i> (crux), cross—crucify, ex-cruciate.
<i>batere</i> (popular Latin), to beat —abate, combat.	<i>currere</i> , to run—discourse, recur.
<i>brevis</i> , short—abbreviate, abridge.	<i>dammum</i> , loss—condemn, indem-nify.
<i>cadere</i> , to fall—accident, coin-cide.	<i>dare</i> , to give—condone, render.
<i>cædere</i> , to cut—decide, homicide.	<i>dent-</i> (dens), tooth—indent, dandelion.
<i>camera</i> , room—comrade, cham-ber.	<i>dicare</i> , to tell—abdicate, in-dicate.
<i>campus</i> , plain—campaign, de-camp.	<i>dicere</i> , to say—condition, bene-diction.
<i>candere</i> , to shine—incandescent, incendiary.	<i>dominus</i> , lord—domain, do-minion.
<i>cantare</i> , to sing—accent, in-cantation.	<i>dūcere</i> , to lead—conduce, con-duit.
<i>capere</i> , to seize—deception, re-ceptacle.	<i>emere</i> , to take—exempt, redeem.
<i>caput</i> , head—achieve, decapitate.	<i>esse</i> , to be—absent, quintessence.
<i>carn-</i> (caro), flesh—carnival, incarnate.	<i>facere</i> , to do—deficient, counter-feit.
<i>causa</i> , cause—because, accuse.	<i>fāri</i> , to speak—affable, infant.
<i>cēdere</i> , to come, yield—excel, recess.	<i>ferre</i> , to bear—circumference, prefer.
<i>cernere</i> , to separate—concern, discriminate.	<i>fidem</i> (acc.), faith—confide, per-fidious.
<i>certus</i> , certain—ascertain, certify.	<i>figere</i> , to fix—affix, transfix.
<i>citare</i> , to incite—excite, solicit.	<i> fingere</i> , to fashion—figure, feign.
<i>clāmāre</i> , to call out—acclamation, proclaim.	<i>finis</i> , end—affinity, refine.
<i>clarus</i> , clear—declare, clarify.	

- fluere*, to flow—affluence, influence.
- forma*, form—conform, transform.
- fort-* (*fors*), strong—effort, fortify.
- frangere*, to break—infraction, refract.
- fundere*, to pour—confound, refute.
- genus*, kin—congenial, indigence.
- gradī*, to step—digress, ingredient.
- grandis*, great — aggrandise, grandiloquent.
- grānum*, grain—engrave, pomegranate.
- grātius*, pleasing — congratulate, ingratiate.
- gregem* (*grex*), flock—aggregate, egregious.
- habēre*, to have—exhibit, avoir-dupois.
- haerere*, to stick—adhere, inherent.
- ire*, to go—circuit, exit.
- iacere*, to throw—abject, sub-jacent.
- iungere*, to join—injunction, sub-join.
- iurāre*, to swear—adjure, perjure.
- lābi*, to glide, slip—collapse.
- lauāre*, to wash—laundress, lava.
- luere*, to wash—ablution, deluge.
- lēgāre*, to appoint—allege, colleague.
- legere*, to collect—diligent, neglect.
- leuis*, light—alleviate, elevate.
- linguere*, to leave—delinquent, relic.
- litera*, letter—alliteration, ob-literate.
- locus*, place—allocate, lieutenant.
- loquī*, to speak—elocution, soliloquy.
- lūdere*, to play—allude, prelude.
- magnus*, great—magnate, magnify.
- mandāre*, to enjoin—mandate, recommend.
- manēre*, to remain—permanent, remnant.
- manus*, the hand — maintain, manufacture.
- medius*, the middle—immediate, medieval.
- ment-* (*mens*), mind—comment, monument.
- merx*, traffic—commerce, merchandise.
- mittere*, to send — commissary, transmit.
- modus*, manner—accommodate, modify.
- monēre*, to advise—admonish, summon.
- mont-* (*mons*), hill—amount, remount.
- mouēre*, to move—commotion, remove.
- mūtāre*, to change—commute, transmutation.
- nasci*, to be born—cognate, innate.
- negāre*, to deny—abnegate, renounce.
- nōmen*, name — cognomen, renown.
- nōscere*, to get to know—cognisance, reconnaissance.
- numerus*, number—enumerate, supernumerary.
- nuntius*, messenger—announce, enunciate.
- optāre*, to wish—adopt, optimism.
- ordo*, order—extraordinary, ordain.
- ōs* (*ör-*), mouth—adore, peroration.
- pār*, equal—compeer, disparage.
- parāre*, to prepare—compare, separate.
- partem* (*pars*), part—apart, proportion.
- pater*, father—expatriate, patrimony.
- pedem* (*pes*), foot—biped, pedigree.
- pellere*, to drive—appeal, repel.

- pendere*, to weigh—pound, pre-ponderate.
- pendēre*, to hang—depend, pro-pensity.
- petere*, to fly—appetite, com-petitor.
- placēre*, to please—complacent, please.
- plēnus*, full—complete, replenish.
- plicāre*, to fold—apply, explicit.
- pōnere*, to place—deponent, post-pone.
- portare*, to carry—deport, pur-port.
- prehendere*, to seize—apprehend, im-pregnable.
- premere*, to press—depress, re-pression.
- prīmus*, first—primeval, prim-rose.
- probus*, good—approve, repro-bate.
- pungere*, to prick—compunction, expunge.
- quærere*, to seek—acquire, con-quest.
- ravere*, to seize—rapacious, rapture.
- regere*, to rule—erect, region.
- rogāre*, to ask—interrogate, pro-rogue.
- rumpere*, to break — corrupt, rupture.
- sacer*, sacred—consecrate, sacri-fice.
- scandere*, to climb — ascend, scansion.
- scribere*, to write — describe, superscription.
- secāre*, to cut—bisect, insect.
- sedēre*, to sit—preside, super-sede.
- sentire*, to feel—assent, presenti-ment.
- sequī*, to follow—consecutive, prosecute.
- seruus*, slave—deserve, sergeant.
- signum*, sign—assign, signify.
- similis*, like — assimilate, re-semble.
- soluere*, to loosen—absolute, dis-solve.
- sonus*, sound—consonant, re-sound.
- specere*, to look—aspect, sus-picion.
- spirāre*, to breathe—aspire, per-spiration.
- spondēre*, to promise — corre-spond, response.
- stāre*, to stand—constant, ob-stacle.
- stringere*, to draw tight—astrin-gent, district.
- struere*, to build up—construct, instrument.
- tangere*, to touch—attain, integer.
- tegere*, to cover—detect, integu-ment.
- tempus*, time—contemporaneous, extempore.
- tendere*, to extend—attend, in-tense.
- tenēre*, to hold—abstain, con-tinuous.
- terra*, earth—parterre, subter-ranean.
- tollere*, to lift—dilate, legislator.
- torquēre*, to twist—contort, retort.
- trahere*, to draw—attract, en-treat.
- tribus*, clan — contribute, dis-trIBUTE.
- unda*, wave—abundance, sur-round.
- ūti*, to use—abuse, utensil.
- ualēre*, to be strong—avail, valid.
- uenire*, to come—advent, sou-venir.
- uerbum*, word—adverb, proverb.
- uertere*, to turn—divert, con-troversy.
- uia*, way—convey, invoice.
- uidēre*, to see—evident, prudent.
- uincere*, to conquer—convince, evict.
- uiuere*, to live—convivial, revive.
- uoluere*, to roll—evolve, revolt.
- uōx*, voice—vociferation, vowel.
- uocāre*, to call—avocation, re-voke.

A SELECTED LIST OF GREEK WORDS

<i>agein</i> , to drive—strategy, antagonist.	<i>logos</i> , a saying—apology, eulogy.
<i>allos</i> , other—allopathy, parallel.	<i>metron</i> , a measure—diameter, barometer.
<i>archē</i> , beginning, rule—anarchy, monarch.	<i>monos</i> , single—monarch, monopoly.
<i>astiēr</i> , star—astronomy, disaster.	
<i>ballein</i> , to cast—diabolic, emblem.	<i>oidē</i> , song—monody, parody.
<i>bios</i> , life—biology, amphibious.	<i>onoma</i> , name — anonymous, pseudonym.
<i>chartē</i> , a leaf of paper—charter, Magna C(h)arta.	<i>oxus</i> , sharp—oxygen, paroxysm.
<i>chronos</i> , time—chronology, anachronism.	<i>pathos</i> , suffering—apathy, antipathy.
<i>ergon</i> , work—energy, liturgy.	<i>pausis</i> , pause—compose, supposition.
<i>gamos</i> , marriage—bigamy, polygamy.	<i>petros</i> , stone — petrified, petrileum.
<i>gē</i> , earth—geology, geophone.	<i>phainein</i> , to show—diaphanous, phenomenon.
<i>glōssa</i> , tongue—polyglot, glossary.	<i>pherein</i> , to bear — metaphor, periphery.
<i>gnōnai</i> , to know — diagnosis, agnostic.	<i>phone</i> , sound—telephone, symphony.
<i>gramma</i> , letter — diagram, epigram.	<i>phuein</i> , to produce — physics, neophyte.
<i>graphein</i> , to write—biography, telegraph.	<i>poinē</i> , penalty—impunity, repine.
<i>hedra</i> , seat — cathedral, polyhedron.	<i>rheein</i> , to flow — rheumatism, rhythm.
<i>histēmi</i> , I stand—apostasy, ecstasy.	<i>skeptomai</i> , I consider—sceptic, telescope.
<i>hudōr</i> , water—dropsy, hydraulic.	<i>stellein</i> , to send—apostle, epistle.
<i>idein</i> , to see—idea, idyll.	<i>strephein</i> , to turn—apostrophe, catastrophe.
<i>klinein</i> , to lean, slope—climax, enclitic.	<i>tomos</i> , section — anatomy, epitome.
<i>kratus</i> , strong — aristocracy, theocracy.	<i>tonos</i> , tone — baritone, monotonous.
<i>krinein</i> , to judge—crisis, hypocrisy.	<i>tropos</i> , turn—trophy, troubadour.
<i>kruptein</i> , to hide—crypt, apocrypha.	<i>tupos</i> , blow—stereotype, tympanum.

COMBINATIONS

243. If a student will examine the words in any ordinary dictionary, he will find not only words with which the prefixes mentioned in the preceding section are used, but also combinations of words such as *cacophonous*, *calcify*, *centigrade*, *ceroplastic*, *chirography*, *chromolithograph*, *chronometer*, *cosmopolitan* and *crossbow*. These are not very often used in the language of everyday life but are scientific and technical. Some of these he will know better than others, but each one has its story to tell. They are nearly all of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries and are more or less current in all the modern languages. The first part is the combining form of Greek or Latin words, Greek largely predominating. These words are examples of some four hundred or more such forms found in English, which give rise to thousands of words. *Crossbow* is English now, although *cross*, which comes to us from the Scandinavian, derived from the Irish and that again from the Latin, tells by its form the influence of Latin Christianity in Ireland, then of Irish influence upon the Scandinavian invaders of that land and then finally of Scandinavian influence in England.

It is unnecessary to give a full list of these combining forms, but a short list is as follows; meanings are not given as the student is expected to use the dictionary: Greek are *acro-*, *anthropo-*, *arch-*, *astro-*, *auto-*, *bio-*, *chromo-*, *chrono-*, *cosmo-*, *cyclo-*, *demo-*, *geo-*, *hetero-*, *homo-*, *hydro-*, *Indo-*, *litho-*, *martyro-*, *micro-*, *mono-*, *neo-*, *nitro-*, *oxy-*, *palæo-*, *phono-*, *physio-*, *pluto-*, *pseudo-*, *psycho-*, *steno-*, *stereo-*, *tele-*; Latin are *bene-*, *calc-*, *carbo-*, *equi-*, *male-*, *medi-*, *radio-*, *spectro-*, *vice-*. The combining forms of the numerals are *uni-*, *primo-*, *proto-*, *du(o)-*, *bi-*, *di-*; *tri-*; *quadri-*, *tetra-*; *quinqu(e)-*, *penta-*; *sex(i)-*, *hexa-*; *sept(em)-*, *hepta-*; *octo-*; *deci*, *deca-*; *centi-*, *centri-*; *mille-*, *milli-*, *kilo-*; to these may be added *semi-*, *hemi-*, *demi-*; *omni*, *pan-*; *pluri-*, *poly-*. Doubtless the student already knows words in which these forms occur. Very few of these are *living* in popular language, but *arch-* survives in such words as *arch-thief*, *arch-villain*, *pan-* in *Pan-Slavic*, *Pan-German* and *pseudo-* in *pseudo-penitent*.

But combinations were very well known in the Teutonic languages. The English abounded in them as may be seen by turning up an Anglo-Saxon (Old English) dictionary. They are very numerous now and by some are called *phrase-*

compounds. Of course, as English nouns have lost almost all trace of stem-vowels, there can be no such forms ending in *-a*, *-i*, *-o*, as in the Greek and Latin forms above. We have such combinations as *aforesaid*, *afterthought*, *almighty*, *all-sufficient*, *breakwater*, *bookworm*, *chaingang*, *cockpit* and hundreds of others. Nearly all have English components in the first part and, where not, they are not felt as foreign, as in *airhole* and *crossbow*. The question that comes up in this connection is the use of the **hyphen**, and here usage varies very considerably. It is after all a question of stress, which shows how intimate the connection of the two words is in the mind of the speaker or writer. Shall we write *dead lock*, *dead-lock* or *deadlock*? The N.E.D. gives all three in this order and the *Standard* only *deadlock*. The N.E.D. gives *deadfall* and *dead-fall*, the *Standard* *deadfall* only. The N.E.D. gives *dead-nettle* but the scientist, Sir John Lubbock, uses *deadnettle*. When we speak of *Dick Deadeye*, we write it as one word but the N.E.D. gives only *dead-eye*. Or take the case of *book*; *bookshop*, *bookworm*, *bookman* are common writings but *book-learning* and *book-muslin* seem to need the hyphen. No hyphen is needed in *drawback*, *drawbridge*, but in *draw-cut*, *draw-glove*, *draw-plate* it is probably better to use the hyphen. In *drawbar*, *drawknife*, *drawnet*, *drawfile* and *drawgate* I should use no hyphen, although the N.E.D. prints *draw-file* and *drawgate* and the *Standard* the reverse. It would seem to be a safe rule in all such words to use the hyphen only when necessary, which is a matter of personal judgment and can only be determined by usage which in itself often varies. In this matter, as in the case of pronunciation, or vocabulary, or syntax, the workshop of the language lies all about the speaker. In order to become masters of our tongue, both student and teacher must use keen observation and historical knowledge so that the ever-changing character of our speech may be felt and appreciated.

SUFFIXES

244. English, being a descendent of the Indogerman, should and does show a great number of suffixes which are common to it and the Latin and Greek from which it has borrowed so freely. But so many English words have, in the course of the evolution of the language, been so shortened that such suffixes as *-ā*, *-i*, *-o*, *-u*, *-jā*, *-jo*, *-ān*, *-on* have

disappeared entirely, leaving but few traces, though they existed in prehistoric times, as is shown by the study of Comparative Grammar.

In a great many words some of these very numerous Indo-german suffixes still exist but are not easily recognised by us as such. Some of them look alike although of various origins, into which question we cannot enter. Some such are: **-d** in *mood, gold, blood, flood, thread, speed, cold*; **-der** in *fodder*; **-dle** in *needle*; **-el (-le)** in *beetle, saddle*; **-er (-re, -r)** in *beaver, acre, lair*; **-k** in *folk*; **-l** in *heel, fowl*; **-m (-om)** in *beam, arm, name, warm, bloom, blossom*; **-n (-on, -en)** in *son, brown, drown, horn, rain, beacon, token, haven*; **-nd** in *friend, fiend*; **-s** in *eaves, ax*; **-sel** in *ousel*; **-sk** in *tusk*; **-st** in *fist, mist, harvest, twist*; **-ster** in *bolster*; **-ter** in *daughter, halter*; **-th** in *birth, uncouth, health*; **-ther** in *lather, whether*; **-aw (-ow)** in *straw, claw, raw, meadow*.

A few common English suffixes, some of them old, are as follows: **-ed (-d, -t)** in the past participles of weak verbs; **-en** in the past participles of strong verbs, in diminutives; as sign of the feminine noun, *vixen*; as the ending of the old weak declension, *oxen*; forming adjectives from nouns as *golden, beechen, hempen* and as a verb-forming ending (see below); **-er**, the ending of the comparative degree in adjectives, *stronger*; the sign of the agent, *worker, doer*, but *donor*, and also in *deader, out-and-outer*; in law as *user*; as a verb-forming suffix (see below); **-ing** in verbal nouns, *speaking, writing*; in the present participle, *parting*; expressing "belonging to": *king, herring* and in patronymics, *Atheling*; **-ish** in *Danish (French), heathenish, boyish, foppish, bookish, whitish*; **-m-ost** for *-m-est, foremost*, a double superlative ending which is even attached to a comparative, as *bettermost*; **-ness**, used in over a thousand words and phrases, *goodness, bitterness, lovingness, tongue-tiedness* and *up-to-dateness*; **-ster**, originally denoting the female, so *spinster, songster*, now masculine, and *songstress* with a double ending, *seamstress, sempstress, deemster* a judge in the Isle of Man, the proper names *Baxter* (O.E. *bæcstere*), *Brewster, Dempster, Webster* (female weaver); also *huckster, gamester, punster*, and *trickster* with a derogatory sense; **-y (-ie)**, which, represents a Latin or French ending in *fury, glory, army*, but is also an English ending, *-ig*, in O.E. in *body*; it is a living suffix in a great many words, as *bony, slangy, pinky, lanky, skyey, fatty, baby, lassie*.

Diminutives are formed with -e (-ock) in hillock, -el (-le) in

kernel, hovel, sickle, -en in *maiden, -ling* in *starling, gosling, -kin* in *lambkin, napkin, bumpkin, Perkin(s), -y* in *Johnny, piggy.*

Another class of English suffixes once existed, and some do now, as independent words. Noun-forming are: **-dom**, the same word as *doom*, very extensively used, as *thraldom, dukedom, kingdom, officialdom*; **-hood**, a separate word in Old English, *childhood*, and **-ship** in *friendship, Lordship*. Others are: **-lock**, only in *wedlock*; **-ledge** in *knowledge* only; **-ling** in *hireling, princeling*; **-red** (1) in *hatred* and *kindred*; **-red** (2) in *hundred* only, and **-rie** in *bishopric*; **-head** has dropped out of use except in *Godhead, maidenhead*.

Adjective-forming suffixes are: **-fast** in *steadfast, "shamefast"* (wrongly interpreted as *shamefaced*); **-fold** in *manifold*; **-ful**, a *living* suffix, in *handful*; **-like** in *homelike* (the earlier form *home-ly* has now a different sense); **-some** in *wholesome*; **-ward** in *awkward, froward*; **-wart** in *stalwart*; **-wise** in *cross-wise*, but *rightwise* is now *righteous*.

Adverbial suffixes are: **-ly** in *brightly*; **-meal** in *piecemeal*; a hybrid word; **-ward** in *northward*; **-wards** in *backwards*; **-way(s)** in *away, always*, and **-wise** in *likewise*.

Verbal suffixes are: **-(e)n** in *waken* or with a causal sense in *deafen, stiffen*; **-k**, frequentative, in *hark, walk*; **-le (-l)**, iterative and frequentative in *gabble, drawl*; **-er** in the same sense, *chatter, waver*, and **-se** in *cleanse, rinse*, make clean.

GREEK AND LATIN SUFFIXES

245. Many of these come through the French, especially of the Latin, which are the more numerous. At the outset it may be pointed out that a number of suffixes, given in the *Concise Oxford*, are very directly from the Greek and join with the combining forms given in Section 243 to make compounds. Such are: **-cracy**, rule of, *democracy*, also in English words as *cottonocracy*; **-cyte**, all, *leucocyte*; **-gen**, of such a kind, producing, *oxygen*; **-gon**, angled, *hexagon*; **-gram**, letter, writing, *cryptogram*, also *cablegram*, a hybrid; **-graph**, *telegraph*, also *pictograph*, a hybrid; **-gynous** having pistils, *tetragynous*; **-lith**, a stone, *monolith, granolithic*, a hybrid, French form *-lite, aerolite*; **-logy** and its family *-logue* (French), *-loger, -logist, -logic(al)* in *theology*, etc.; **-mancy**, divination,

necromancy; -mania, madness, eager pursuit of, love of, *kleptomania*, *bibliomania*, *Anglomania*; *-meter*, measurer, *barometer*, also *gasometer*; *-pathy*, treatment, *hydropathy*, *allopathy*; *-phil* (*-phile*), *Anglophil*; *-phobe*, hater, *Anglophobe*; *-phone*, voice, *telephone*, *megaphone* and a very new coinage, *geophone*, an instrument now used by miners; *-phore*, bearer, *semaphore*, *phosphorus*; *-scope*, watcher, *horoscope*, *telescope*; *-tomy*, cutting, used most in surgical words, *anatomy*. Although often given as suffixes these terminations hardly come under the heading.

To give a full list of the remaining suffixes would be to extend this section beyond limit. The student is again referred to that great mine of information on our speech, the *New English Dictionary*, and to the *Concise Oxford*. A few of the more common are: *-ble* (*-able*, *ible*), liable, bearable, eatable, get-at-able, terrible, negligible; *-acious*, *-aeity*, *loquacious*, *loquacity*; *-acy*, fallacy, *magistracy*, *episcopacy*; *-ad(e)*, tirade, blockade, ballad; *-age*, homage, breakage, bondage; *-ance*, nuisance, forbearance; *-ancy*, tenancy; *-ar*, altar, scholar; *-ant*, confidant; *-ary*, arbitrary; *-ate*, curate, aldermanate, desolate, isolate; *-atic*, fanatic, lunatic; *-ation*, agitation, starvation; *-ative*, demonstrative, talkative; *-eer* (*-ier*), muleteer, bombardier, financier, auctioneer, electioneer; *-ence*, conscience; *-ency*, dependency; *-ent*, confident; *-eous*, aqueous, duteous; *-ese*, Japanese, *Carlylese*; *-ess*, poetess; *-ette*, coquette, leatherette; *-faction*, satisfaction; *-ferous*, carboniferous; *-(i)fie*, *pacific*; *-(i)fication*, purification; *-form*, uniform; *-fy*, satisfy, speechify, argufy; *-ic*, poetic, *Byronic*; *-ina*, *Czarina*, *concertina*; *-ine*, marine, *Florentine*, equine, heroine, cocaine; *-ious*, invidious, religious, various; *-ise* (*-ice*), exercise, justice; *-ite*, *Shelleyite*, graphite, cordite; *-ize* (*-ise*), sympathize, anglicize, surprise; *-latry*, idolatry, *babylatry*; *-let*, ringlet, armlet, hamlet; *-long*, sidelong, headlong; *-ment*, atonement, merriment; *-ose*, bellicose, jocose; *-tude*, altitude; *-ty*, equity, loyalty; *-vorous*, carnivorous.

No attempt has been made to give the various meanings of these suffixes. Here again the student will do something for himself, that is, consult the dictionary. Some of these are extremely common, used also with English words, as the examples will show. No apology is made for the introduction of such an example as "argufy." Our language is a *living language*.

APPENDIX D

246. Summary of the Verb.—In the Indicative and Subjunctive Moods only first person singular forms are given.

INDICATIVE

ACTIVE

	Ordinary	Progressive	Emphatic
Present	I give	I am giving	I do give
Pres. Perf.	I have given	I have been giving	
Past	I gave	I was giving	I did give
Past Perf.	I had given	I had been giving	
Future	I shall give	I shall be giving	
Fut. Perf.	I shall have given	I shall have been giving	
Past Fut.	I should give	I should be giving	
Past Fut. Perf.	I should have given	I should have been giving	

PASSIVE

Ordinary Progressive

Present	I am given	I am being given
Pres. Perf.	I have been given	
Past	I was given	I was being given
Past Perf.	I had been given	
Future	I shall be given	
Fut. Perf.	I shall have been given	
Past Fut.	I should be given	
Past Fut. Perf.	I should have been given	

SUBJUNCTIVE

ACTIVE

Ordinary Forms

Emphatic

Present	I give	I may give	I do give
Pres. Perf.	I have given ¹	I may have given	
Past	I gave	I might give	I did give
Past Perf.	I had given	I might have given	I should have given

¹ Now obsolete.

PROGRESSIVE FORMS

Present	I be giving	I may be giving
Pres. Perf.	I have been giving	I may have been giving
Past	I were giving	I might be giving
Past Perf.	I had been giving	I might have been giving

I should be giving
I should have been giving

PASSIVE

Present	I be given	I may be given
Pres. Perf.	I have been given	I may have been given
Past	I were given	I might be given
	I were being given	I should be given
Past Perf.	I had been given	I might have been given

I should have been given

IMPERATIVE

ACTIVE

Present	Ordinary Give	Emphatic Do give
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PASSIVE

Present	Be given	Do be given
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NON-MODAL FORMS

INFINITIVES

	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
	Ordinary	Progressive
Pres.	(to) give	(to) be given
Past	(to) have given	(to) have been given

GERUNDS

Pres.	giving	being given
Past	having given	having been given

PARTICIPLES

Pres.	giving	being given
Past	having given	given

having been given

¹ Now obsolete.

² The only progressive tense in the passive of the subjunctive.

APPENDIX E

EXTRACTS FOR ANALYSIS

1. As I was sitting in my chambers, and thinking on a subject for my next essay, I heard two or three irregular bounces at my landlady's door, and upon the opening of it, a loud cheerful voice inquiring whether the philosopher was at home. The child who went to the door answered very innocently that he did not lodge there. I immediately recollect that it was my good friend Sir Roger's voice, and that I had promised to go with him to Spring Garden, in case it proved a good evening. The knight put me in mind of my promise from the bottom of the staircase, but told me that if I was writing he would stay below till I had done. Upon my coming down I found all the children of the family gathered about my old friend, and my landlady herself, who is a notable gossip, engaged in a conference with him, being mightily pleased with his stroking her little boy upon the head and bidding him be a good child and mind his book.—ADDISON, *The Spectator*.

2. MR. FAGIN DRILLS HIS APPRENTICES

When breakfast was over, the merry old gentleman and the two boys played at a very curious game, which was performed in this way. The instructor, placing a snuff-box in one pocket of his trousers, a note-case in the other, and a watch in his waistcoat pocket, and sticking a mock diamond pin in his shirt, buttoned his coat tight round him, and putting his spectacle-case and handkerchief in his pockets, trotted up and down the room with a stick as if he were an old gentleman strolling on the street. Sometimes he would stop and pretend that he was staring with all his might into shop-windows. All the time the two boys followed him closely about; getting out of his sight so nimbly whenever he turned round that it was impossible to follow their motions. At last the Dodger trod upon his toes at the very moment when Charley Bates stumbled up against him behind; and in that one moment they took from him all his treasures—even his spectacle-case. If the old gentleman felt a hand in any one of his pockets, he cried out where it was; and then the game began all over again.—DICKENS, *Oliver Twist*.

3. The drawbridge dropped with a surly clang,
And through the dark arch a charger sprang,
Bearing Sir Launfal, the maiden knight,
In his gilded mail, that flamed so bright

It seemed the dark castle had gathered all
 Those shafts the fierce sun had shot over its wall
 In his siege of three hundred summers long,
 And, binding them all in one blazing sheaf,
 Had cast them forth ; so, young and strong,
 And lightsome as a locust leaf,
 Sir Launfal flashed forth in his maiden mail,
 To seek in all climes for the Holy Grail.

J. R. LOWELL, *The Vision of Sir Launfal*.

4. Though rather shy and distrustful of this new acquaintance, Rip complied with his usual alacrity ; and mutually relieving each other, they clambered up a narrow gully, apparently the dry bed of a mountain torrent. As they ascended, Rip every now and then heard long rolling peals, like distant thunder, that seemed to issue out of a deep ravine, toward which their rugged path conducted. He paused for an instant, but supposing it to be the muttering of a transient thunder-shower, he proceeded. During the whole time, Rip and his companion had laboured on in silence ; for though the former marvelled greatly what could be the object of carrying a keg of liquor up this wild mountain, yet there was something strange and incomprehensible about the unknown, that inspired awe, and checked familiarity.—WASHINGTON IRVING, *Rip Van Winkle*.

5.

FARM TOPICS

Contributed by a Rural Correspondent

Editor's Note

Although these two articles are taken from a text-book on agriculture published years ago, we think that many of the younger generation are not familiar with them, and therefore venture to insert them for the benefit of our readers.

A

SOIL-TESTING

Now I shall tell by what means you can learn the nature of each soil. You will need to know whether it be light or unusually heavy. For the one is adapted for grain, the other for the vine (the heavier soil for Ceres¹, all particularly light soils for Lyæus²) ; you must first with the eye fix upon a spot, and bid that a pit be driven deep down in solid earth, and put all the soil back into its place, and by treading it in with the feet make level the surface of the ground. If it proves not enough to fill the hollow, it will be a light soil, fittest for grazing and the kindly vine ; but if it shows plainly that it cannot be put within its old space, and there is a superfluity

¹ Ceres: the goddess of grain.

² Lyæus: the god of wine.

of earth when the trench is filled, that field is stiff soil ; look forward to reluctant clods and tough ridges of land, and with strong teams of oxen cleave the ground.

B

TRAINING A COLT

If your taste be war, or your passion be to drive swiftly the speeding chariot, remember that what the horse must first be taught with the greatest care is to face steadily the arms of bold warriors, and to bear the trumpet's voice, and fearless to pull the chariot, rattling as it is drawn, and to hear the noise of the bit in the stable ; then more and more to rejoice in the flattery and praise of his trainer, and to love the noise of the patting of his neck. Let him hear these noises as soon as he is weaned from his dam, and in time let him accustom his mouth to soft bits, whilst still unsteady, still trembling, still untrained and young. But when three summers are past and the fourth is just come, he should be taught to run in the circle, and to prance with regular steps, and to curvet with his legs moving in time, as one that seems to have a work to do ; so let him challenge the gales in race, and, skimming over the open plain, as though free from reins, scarcely let him set the marks of his feet on the surface of the sand. Such a horse as this will sweat on the Olympic race-track, or will stoutly bear the yokes of the Belgic chariot on his obedient neck. Only then, when they are fully "broken," allow their bodies to become plump on thickly mixed food ; for till they are tamed, they will raise their spirits high, and when caught will disdain to endure the tough lash, and to obey the hard bits.—*VIRGIL, Georgics.*
Translated by Lonsdale and Lee.

6.

HECTOR'S FAREWELL TO HIS SON

So spake glorious Hector,¹ and stretched out his arm to his boy. But the child shrunk close to the bosom of his nurse, because he was dismayed at his father's aspect, and feared the bronze and horse-hair crest that he beheld nodding fiercely from the helmet's top. Then his dear father laughed aloud ; and his lady mother ; forthwith glorious Hector took the helmet from his head, and laid it, all gleaming, upon the earth ; then kissed he his dear son and dandled him in his arms, and spake in prayer to Zeus² and all the gods, "O Zeus and all ye gods, grant that this my son may likewise prove even as I, pre-eminent amid the Trojans, and as valiant in might, and be a great king of Troy. Then may men say of

¹ When Troy was besieged by the Greeks, Hector was the leader of the Trojan forces.

² Zeus: the chief of the gods.

him, ‘Far greater is he than his father,’ as he returneth home from battle; and may he bring with him spoils from the foeman he hath slain, and may his mother’s heart be glad.”—HOMER, *Iliad* (translated by Lang, Leaf and Myers).

7. Following with wonderful promptitude the directions of Ivanhoe, and availing herself of the protection of the large ancient shield, which she placed against the lower part of the window, Rebecca, with tolerable security to herself, could witness part of what was passing without the castle, and report to Ivanhoe the preparations which the assailants were making for the storm. Indeed, the situation which she thus obtained was peculiarly favourable for this purpose, because, being placed on an angle of the main building, Rebecca could not only see what passed beyond the precincts of the castle, but also commanded a view of the out-work likely to be the first object of assault. It was an exterior fortification of no great height or strength, intended to protect the postern-gate, through which Cedric had recently been dismissed by Front-de-Bœuf. The castle moat divided this barbican from the rest of the fortress, so that, in case of its being taken, it was easy to cut off the communication with the main building, by withdrawing the temporary bridge.—SCOTT, *Ivanhoe*.

8. More things are wrought by prayer
 Than this world dreams of. Wherefore, let thy voice
 Rise like a fountain for me night and day.
 For what are men better than sheep or goats
 That nourish a blind life within the brain,
 If, knowing God, they lift not hands of prayer
 Both for themselves and those who call them friends ?
 For so the whole round earth is every way
 Bound by gold chains about the feet of God.

TENNYSON, *Morte d'Arthur*.

9.

AN AFTERNOON CALL

A scene in Alexandria, twenty-two centuries ago

CHARACTERS

<i>Praxinoe</i> : the hostess	<i>Eunoe</i> : daughter of Praxinoe.
<i>Gorgo</i> : the caller.	<i>Zoppy</i> : three-year old son of Praxinoe.

Gorgo. Is Praxinoe at home ?

Praxinoe. Dear Gorgo, how late you are ! I am at home ; It’s a wonder you have come even now. Get a chair for her, Eunoe ; and put a cushion on it.

Gorgo. Don’t bother. We shall be going very soon.

Praxinoe. Be seated.

Gorgo. Dear me ! I’ve had a time reaching your house. You

can't imagine how the streets are jammed. I am sure my new shoes are ruined, for fifty careless fellows stepped on my feet. You certainly live a long way out ; it seems to me that I've been walking for hours.

Praxinoe. I really believe that that crazy husband of mine came to this part of the city and took this wretched six-room house that we might not be neighbours to one another. He always does the wrong thing.

Gorgo. Don't talk like that, my dear, about your husband when the little one is in the room. See, how he is looking at you!

Praxinoe. Never mind, little Zoppy, sweet child ! I don't mean papa !

Gorgo. He understands what you say ! Pretty papa !

Praxinoe. Yes ; he is a pretty papa ! Last night when he was going out I asked him to buy me some complexion-powder. "What extravagant creatures you women are !" he growled, "Do you think that I am made of money ?" But I noticed that he brought home a box of cigars, for all his economy.

Gorgo. Yes ; and my husband is just the same, always spending on himself. But come, put on your new suit and let us hurry to see the festival at the palace. I hear that the queen is getting up a charming kind of affair.

Praxinoe. It's easy for those to give who have lots.

Gorgo. That's so. But it is time to be off.

Praxinoe. Eunoe, bring me the towel.

Eunoe. I can't find it, mother.

Praxinoe. Where are your eyes, child ? If you look in the corner, you will see it ; there it is ; the cats are sleeping on it. Come, stir, bring the water quickly. I want water first. See how she brings the towel ! Well, give it to me ; Don't pour in too much water ! Why are you wetting my blouse ? Where is the key of the wardrobe ? Bring it here.

Gorgo. Praxinoe, that blue suit becomes you so well ! tell me what you paid for it.

Praxinoe. Don't mention it, Gorgo ! Though it was a bargain, I am ashamed to tell the price. But as soon as I set my eyes on it, I made up my mind to have it.

Gorgo. Well, it is a beauty.

Praxinoe. Yes, I think so. Bring me my parasol, Eunoe. I won't take you, child. Horse bites ! Bad man get Zoppy ! Cry as much as you please ! Eunoe, play with the little man. Call the dog in. Shut the hall-door.—THEOCRITUS, *Idyll XV.* (adapted).

10. So spake Lavaine, and when they reach'd the lists
By Camelot in the meadow, let his eyes
Run thro' the peopled gallery which half round
Lay like a rainbow fall'n upon the grass

Until they found the clear-faced King, who sat
 Robed in red samite, easily to be known,
 Since to his crown the golden dragon clung,
 And down his robe the dragon writhed in gold,
 And from the carven-work behind him crept
 Two dragons gilded, sloping down to make
 Arms for his chair, while all the rest of them
 Thro' knots and loops and folds innumerable
 Fled ever thro' the woodwork, till they found
 The new design wherein they lost themselves.

TENNYSON, *Launcelot and Elaine.*

II.

THE ARCHERS AT CRESSY

You must know that the French troops did not advance in any regular order, and that as soon as their King came in sight of the English his blood began to boil, and he cried out to his Marshals, "Order the Genoese archers forward and begin the battle in the name of God and St. Denis." There were about 15,000 Genoese crossbow men; but they were quite fatigued, as they had marched on foot, that day six leagues, completely armed and carrying their crossbows, and accordingly they told the constable that they were not in a condition to do any great thing in battle. On hearing this, one of the French earls said, "This is what one gets by employing such scoundrels, who fall off when there is any need of them." Although the day was rainy at first, the sun came out bright afterwards; but the French had it in their faces, and the English on their backs. When the Genoese were somewhat in order, they approached the English and set up a loud shout that they might frighten them; but the English remained quite quiet and did not seem to attend to it. Then setting up a second shout they advanced a little forward; the English did not move. Still they hooted a third time, advancing with their crossbows presented, and began to shoot. The English archers then advanced one step forward, and shot their arrows with such force and quickness that it seemed as if it snowed. When the Genoese felt these arrows, which pierced through their armour, some of them cut the strings of their crossbows, others flung them to the ground, and all turned about and retreated quite discomfited.—FROISSART, *Chronicles*.

12.

A THRACIAN BANQUET

As the Greeks had agreed to assist Seuthes, a Thracian chief, their officers were invited by him to a grand banquet. On entering the dining-room they were seated in a circle. Before them were placed three-legged tables, on which were great piles of sliced meat to which huge loaves of bread were

attached by skewers. Seuthes began the meal by taking the loaves which were set near him and breaking them in small pieces ; these he tossed to the guests, and did likewise with the meat. His example was followed by the others who had tables near them. But one of the guests was a certain Arcadian, Arystas by name, who was a great glutton, and who belonged to a tribe notoriously ignorant of good manners. Although a table stood in front of him, he did not do as the rest had done, but grabbing a loaf which was as large as three ordinary ones, he at the same time placed all the meat on his lap and so went on with his supper. In the meantime horns full of wine were carried round the room and given to each guest. When our stout trencherman saw the wine coming to him, he noticed that Xenophon, one of the generals, had finished eating, so he roared to the servant, " Give him the wine, I am too busy yet." Their host, hearing the shout, asked the cup-bearer what he had said. As the servant happened to understand Greek, he translated the speech, and a roar of laughter followed as all looked at the " busy " man.—*XENOPHON, Anabasis.*

13. Not once or twice in our rough island-story,
 The path of duty was the way to glory ;
 He that walks it, only thirsting
 For the right, and learns to deaden
 Love of self, before his journey closes,
 He shall find the stubborn thistle bursting
 Into glossy purples, which outredden
 All voluptuous garden-roses.
 Not once or twice in our fair island-story
 The path of duty was the way to glory ;
 He, that ever following her commands,
 On with toil of heart and knees and hands,
 Thro' the long gorge to the far light has won
 His path upward and prevailed,
 Shall find the toppling crags of Duty scaled
 Are close upon the shining table-lands
 To which our God Himself is moon and sun.

TENNYSON, *Ode on the Death of the Duke of Wellington.*

14. If I had gone out into the town, I should not have been surprised to encounter someone who I knew must be then in London. So to speak, there was a curious inattention in my mind. I was persuaded that I had an apprehension of Ham's returning by sea and being lost. This grew so strong with me, that I resolved to go back to the yard before I took my dinner, and ask the boat-builder if he thought his attempting to return by sea at all likely. The boat-builder quite laughed when I asked him the question, and said there was no fear ; no man in his senses, or out of them, would put off in such a gale of wind, least of all Ham Peggotty, who had been born to seafaring.—DICKENS, *David Copperfield.*

15. Wouldst thou be taught, when sleep has taken flight,
 By a sure voice that can most sweetly tell,
 How far-off yet a glimpse of morning light,
 And if to lure the truant back be well,
 Forbear to covet a Repeater's stroke,
 That, answering to thy touch, will sound the hour ;
 Better provide thee with a Cuckoo-clock
 For service hung behind the chamber-door ;
 And in due time the soft spontaneous shock,
 The double note, as if with living power,
 Will to composure lead—or make thee blithe as bird in
 bower.

WORDSWORTH, *The Cuckoo-Clock.*

A FAULT-FINDER SILENCED

16. Now all the rest sat down, only Thersites still chattered on, the uncontrolled of speech, whose mind was full of words many and disorderly, with which he strove against the chiefs, as he deemed that he should make the Greeks laugh. And he was ill-favoured beyond all men that came to Troy. Bandy-legged was he, and lame of one foot, and his two shoulders rounded, arched down upon his chest ; and over them his head was warped, and a scanty stubble sprouted on it.

17. So spake Thersites, reviling Agamemnon¹ shepherd of the host. But goodly Ulysses² came straight to his side, and looking sternly at him with hard words rebuked him : “ Thersites, reckless in words, shrill orator though thou art, refrain thyself, nor aim to strive against kings. For I deem that no mortal is baser than thou of all that with the Greek leaders came before Troy. Therefore were it well that thou shouldest not have kings in thy mouth as thou talkest, and utter revilings against them. We know not yet clearly whether we Greeks shall return for good or for ill. But now dost thou revile continually Agamemnon, shepherd of the host, because the Greek warriors give him many gifts, and so thou talkest tauntingly. But I will tell thee plain, and what I say shall even be brought to pass : if I find thee again raving as now thou art, then may Ulysses' head no longer abide upon his shoulders, if I take thee not and strip from thee thy garments and beat thee out of the assembly with shameful blows.”

18. So spake he, and with his staff smote his back and shoulders : and he bowed down and a big tear fell from him, and a blood weal stood up from his back beneath the golden sceptre. Then he sat down and was amazed, and in pain with helpless look wiped away the tear. But the rest, though they were sorry, laughed lightly at him, and thus would one speak,

¹ Agamemnon: Commander of the Greeks at the siege of Troy.

² Ulysses—The wisest of the Greek leaders.

looking at another standing by: "Of a truth Ulysses hath wrought good deeds without number ere now, but this thing, to wit, that he hath stayed this prating railer from his harangues, is by far the best that he hath wrought among the Greeks."—HOMER, *Iliad* (translated by Lang, Leaf and Myers).

19. Then Mr. Slope began to meditate, as others also had done, as to who might possibly be the new dean; and it occurred to him that it might be possible that he should be the new dean himself. Whether the stipend might be two thousand or fifteen hundred, it would in any case be a great thing for him, should he be so lucky as to get the position. Mr. Slope, moreover, was not without means whereby he might forward his views. In the first place, he could count upon the assistance the bishop would give him. He immediately changed his views with regard to his patron; he said to himself that if he became dean, he would hand his lordship back again to his wife's control, thinking it likely that his lordship might not be sorry to rid himself of one of his mentors.—A. TROLLOPE, *Barchester Towers*.

20. I stood in Venice, on the Bridge of Sighs ;
 A palace and a prison on each hand ;
 I saw from out the waves her structure rise,
 As from the stroke of the enchanter's wand :
 A thousand years their cloudy wings expand
 Around me, and a dying Glory smiles
 O'er the far times, when many a subject land
 Looked to the wingèd Lion's marble piles,
 Where Venice sat in state, throned on her hundred isles.

BYRON, *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*.

NOTE ON CLAUSAL ANALYSIS

There is a second method of Clausal Analysis, which is preferred by some teachers to the one explained on pages 26–28.

SENTENCE

The boys who helped him were rewarded, and those that ran away, got what they deserved.

Sentence 1:

The boys . . . deserved. Compound-complex declarative.

1. The boys . . . rewarded, Principal.

(a) who helped him, Subor., limiting adj., mod. *boys*.

2. (and) those . . . deserved. Principal, co-ordinate with No. 1.

(a) that ran away, Subor., limiting adj., mod. *those*.

(b) what they deserved. Subor., subst., dir. of *got*.

APPENDIX F

As many teachers prefer a fuller parsing than is suggested in the text, the following is given as an example of complete parsing.

My brothers have invited their friend, the explorer, and wish him to come to-day.

1. *my*, adj., limiting, pronom. poss. used adherently to modify the noun *brothers*.
2. *brothers*, noun, common, concrete, masc., pl., nom., subj. of *have invited*. Rule: the subject of a finite verb is in the nom. case.
3. *have invited*, verb, trans., weak, invite, invited, invited, active, indic., pres. perf., third, pl., agreeing with its subject, *brothers*. Rule: A finite verb agrees with its subject in number and person.
4. *their*, like *my*.
5. *friend*, noun, common, concrete, masc. or fem., sing., acc., direct obj. of the verb *have invited*. Rule: The direct obj. of a transitive verb is in the acc. case.
6. *the*, adj., limiting, definite article, used adherently to modify the noun *explorer*.
7. *explorer*, noun, common, concrete, masc. or fem., sing., acc., in apposition with the noun *friend*. Rule: A substantive in apposition is in the same case as the substantive with which it is in apposition.
8. *and*, conj., co-ord., joins the two principal clauses.
9. *Wish*, verb, trans., weak, wish, wished, wished, active indic. pres., third, pl., agreeing with its subject *brothers*.
10. *him*, pron. personal, third, masc., sing., acc., subj. of the verb *to come*. Rule: The subject of an infinitive is in the acc. case.
11. *to come*, verb, complete, strong, come, came, come, active, infin. pres., subject *them*.
12. *to-day*, adv. of time, mod. the verb *to come*.

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